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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 23, 1897.

The Week.

The Cuban news is grave, whether all its details are accurate or not. Minister Woodford may not have delivered an ultimatum to Spain, but there seems to be no doubt that he has made, or will make, very serious representations to the Spanish Government, under instructions from our own; or that a crisis in our relations to Spain is approaching. Exactly what ground the Administration has chosen on which to make its remonstrances to Spain is, of course, not yet known; but it is fair to presume that the despatches of the *Temps* of Paris are not wide of the mark in asserting that special stress was laid, in Gen. Woodford's communication, upon the great losses sustained by reason of the long-continued war, and the evident unlikelihood of the rebellion's being crushed within a reasonable time. This, it is important to recall, is the historic American position, and is the only rational and justifiable way of dealing with an affair which, in any aspect, is deplorable and thick with embarrassments. No longer ago than President Cleveland's message of December 7, 1896, interference on the lines indicated was distinctly foreshadowed, and he was but taking his stand where President Grant had taken his in 1874 and 1875. With our foreign affairs then in the careful hands of Hamilton Fish, interference with Spain on the ground of the prolonged rebellion in Cuba was yet distinctly intimated. In his annual message of December 7, 1874, Gen. Grant referred to the continuance of "the deplorable strife in Cuba," then of six years' duration, and said that "positive steps on the part of other Powers" might become "a matter of self-necessity." In the following December he adverted to the subject more at length.

Of course, the threat of force necessarily lies back of any interference, no matter how considerably it may be suggested. The inevitable implication is, "We very much hope you will listen to our respectful and friendly representations; but if you do not, why, we shall have to compel you to." Now this is a grave step to take with a high-spirited and almost insanely proud people like the Spanish. They recognize no distinction between Cuba and any other part of their territory. A suggestion from any outside Power about Cuba would seem as deep an insult as one about Catalonia. How an open rupture could be avoided it is not easy to see. It is said, indeed, that many public men in

Spain would welcome our interference, as enabling them to give up Cuba under stress of superior force, and so save Spanish pride. But any such programme would necessarily involve a show of war, if not actual war. Probably no intelligent Spaniards would enter upon war with the United States except as a desperate resort to vindicate the national honor. But even a war undertaken by one of the parties to it in a hopeless spirit may be made disastrous to both before it is over. This is only one of those grave considerations which, it is to be hoped, the Administration has carefully weighed before embarking on a policy which may lead us far and cost us dear.

A striking saying of the late Cánovas del Castillo is reported by M. Charles Benoist in his article on that Spanish statesman in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of September 1. "We Spaniards," Cánovas is said to have declared in 1878, "are not strong enough to insist upon the first place; but we are not, and we cannot be, modest enough to take the second place with a good grace." The phrase is typical not only of the policy which Cánovas pursued so indomitably, but, in a sense, of the whole course of Spanish affairs in this century. Cánovas, according to M. Benoist, would not consent to sound European governments in respect to the Cuban trouble; it was beneath the dignity of Spain so much as to admit that she was in difficulties. So of the many other solutions proposed: Spain was too proud to sell Cuba; her troops would die there, her last man and peseta would be sent there if necessary, but the island would never be abandoned. The conduct of the foreign relations of Spain, in short, has been kept as far as possible on the haughty plane occupied by the rulers of Spain when she held the primacy of Europe. In view of her sadly changed circumstances, this is magnificent, but is it statesmanship?

Soon after Secretary Sherman's ill-mannered and undiplomatic despatch about the seals was made public, the British Government announced that the despatch had been duly answered. That answer is now given in a "Blue Book" covering the correspondence. It consists in a complete ignoring of Mr. Sherman's bad manners, and a quiet remark that, as far as his despatch contained any arguments, they had been met by anticipation in previous notes by Lord Salisbury. It is added that the Government's assent to a conference of experts in October contemplates only a "limited inquiry" as to the facts, and does not at all countenance "Mr. Sherman's

strange misconceptions." All this would seem the ideal way for a gentleman to deal with a boor, were it not that Mr. Chamberlain has been allowed, in a communication from the Colonial Office to the Foreign Office, to traverse Mr. Sherman's assertions and give him, though in better literary form, as good as he sent. England's "unavailing protests against the attempts of the United States to hamper and embarrass the operations of British subjects pursuing their lawful vocation," is not a very happy or conciliatory way of phrasing it. But the notes to Ambassador Hay and Secretary Sherman appear to be in perfect taste and form, and to have rebuked bad manners in the most effective way possible—by ignoring them and displaying good manners.

We are not surprised to learn from the *Tribune's* Washington despatch that State Department officials are shocked at the bad form of the English reply to Secretary Sherman. They will not be quoted; they make no open comments—that would be bad form on their part—but they raise their eyebrows and look unutterable things. The main trouble seems to be that no official copy of Mr. Chamberlain's letter to Lord Salisbury has reached Washington. The London papers had it in advance. This is severely commented upon by the Washington correspondent of the *Tribune*, in the same breath in which he points out the advantage his own paper enjoyed in getting a copy of Secretary Sherman's despatch in advance. But we doubt if an official copy of Mr. Chamberlain's letter ever reaches Washington at all. It was a purely domestic affair between the Colonial Office and the Foreign Office. Doubtless Mr. Chamberlain saw that it reached the papers very much as the author of the Sherman despatch saw that his performance reached them. As authorities on diplomatic "good form," neither our editors nor our State Department seem to be in a position to hold up hands of horror at the disgusting English.

Hawaii is already annexed to the United States, as far as her own action can do it. A special session of the Hawaiian Senate was called for September 8, to ratify the treaty. There was no concealment of the reasons for this step. It was intended both to expedite matters at Washington and to do away with the dangers of delay at Honolulu. Government supporters openly said that if the treaty should be long tied up in Washington, or should appear to be in danger of failing there, it might not be possible to ratify it even in Hawaii. Hence the need of speed. So the Senate

was called together, and is reported to have approved the treaty. But this, of course, amounts to nothing so far as we are concerned, and really will serve to embitter the Hawaiians still further at being ruled by an oligarchy. They have practically no voice in electing their Senate, and yet their Senate is giving away their country. Less than 3,000 voters have anything to do with elections in the Hawaiian republic; even they have not been consulted about the choice of President or Senate, both being, in effect, self-appointed. Yet it is this President and this Senate that have hastened to alienate the territory and extinguish the nationality of 100,000 people without consulting them. To put the finishing touch of dishonesty to their action, they describe it as performed in the name of republican institutions and Christianity!

It appears now that the Bank of England did address a note to the Chancellor of the Exchequer as long ago as the 29th of July, offering to hold one-fifth of the reserves of the issues department in silver on condition that "the French mint is again open to the free coinage of silver, and that the prices at which silver is procurable and salable are satisfactory." Exactly what is meant by the last clause is not clear. One interpretation put upon it is that the Government shall protect the Bank against loss in the purchase and sale of silver, but it may mean merely that the ratio between gold and silver must be satisfactory. Although the conditions imposed are not likely to be complied with, since it is most improbable that France will expose herself to the loss of her gold by a resumption of silver coinage, the action of the Bank of England is quite unaccountable. It is also extremely mischievous since it comes at a time when the silverites both here and abroad are flat on their backs. The price of silver had dropped about 20 per cent. The simultaneous advance in wheat had turned the laugh on the Bryanites and deprived them of their principal argument. Japan had adopted the single gold standard. Russia had taken the initial steps to that end. The silver craze in Germany had nearly died and in France it was on the wane. Above all, the discontinuance of silver coinage in India had produced comparative steadiness in the value of the rupee and in the rate of exchange with England. All these desirable results had come about since the last international babblement about silver, and even if the results had not been altogether desirable at the time when the Brussels conference was in session, they were now *faits accomplis*. The monetary question now wore a new aspect, and by all business rules ought to remain undisturbed by business men. In this condition of calm

the Bank of England, reputed to be the most solid and conservative institution in the world—one which has been conducted on the single gold standard for eighty years, and has never used silver except for small change in all that time—takes a step, not to restore silver to the category of legal tender, but to put the silverites of the world on their feet once more and fill them with new hope and courage.

A letter from Lord Farrer to the *London Times* gives information that a proposal has been made to reopen the Indian mints to silver on the understanding that the United States and France do the same at a ratio of 15½ to 1. The consideration offered is, that it will insure India a permanent and steady exchange. Lord Farrer was himself a member of the Monetary Commission of 1893, which examined and passed upon the proposal of the Indian Government to discontinue the coinage of silver and tentatively adopt the gold standard. The commission made an exhaustive report, and reached the unanimous conclusion that the proposal should be agreed to, in order to put an end to the fluctuations of exchange. They believed that if the mints were closed, the value of the rupee would no longer follow the fluctuations of silver, but would become steady and be subject only to the slight changes of a commercial character which exist between gold-standard countries. The result has fully justified their expectations. Owing to the fact that a large amount of silver had been lodged in the Indian mints in anticipation of the discontinuance of coinage, the value of the rupee showed a tendency to follow the value of silver during the two subsequent years. At the beginning of 1896, however, the rupee took an independent course, and with some slight fluctuations began to rise, while silver was falling. It was worth 16d. in June, 1893, when the mints were closed. It is now worth 16¼d., while the silver bullion contained in a rupee is worth less than 10d. This shows that the object of stopping coinage in India has been realized, and now it is proposed to upset the whole arrangement and try something else.

The lack of interest in the silver movement at the present time was strikingly demonstrated at Springfield, O., last week. A "national free-silver camp-meeting" was projected, under the auspices of the National Bimetallic Union, to begin on Thursday and continue for some days. Ex-Congressman Warner, President of the Union, was in charge, and he had engaged a long list of speakers, whose fame was expected to draw people from near and far, excursion parties from Colorado and Utah being counted upon. When the opening day came, there was not even an excursion

from any Ohio town, and there were almost more orators than auditors, only thirty-five people being present. The managers did not attempt to hold any meeting the second day, but sent an urgent appeal to Bryan to come to their rescue, which he unfeelingly refused to do. On the third day it is said that free excursions brought in several hundred people. The fiasco shows that the men who are running the Democratic campaign in Ohio have been shrewd in retiring free coinage from the prominence which they gave it in their platform, and in trying to carry the election on other issues.

In view of the action taken by the recent convention of knit-goods manufacturers, the *Philadelphia Ledger* calls upon Congress to repeal the present tariff on those goods and substitute the duties of the Wilson bill, which were a plain 35 per cent. ad valorem. The reason why this should be done, in the opinion of the *Ledger*, is that the convention resolved, in the first place, to advance the prices of knit goods 15 to 40 per cent., and in the next place to curtail production "even to the stoppage of our mills" in order to force the advance of prices. In other words, the manufacturers declare their intention to "interfere with that wholesome competition in trade which public policy demands shall not be restrained, and deprive of work and wages the 50,000 or 100,000, or whatever the number may be, workingmen or women employed in the mills." The manufacturers, on the other hand, say that they can make no money at present. They have been overprotected in the past to such a degree that domestic production is strangling them, and on top of this comes the new tariff on wool, which they could not avoid, even if they wished to do so. There is much to be said on both sides, but nothing whatever is to be said for the tariff itself, which compels the manufacturers to oppress either their customers or their employees, and perhaps both.

Mr. Dingley's explanation, through his paper, the *Lewiston Journal*, of the reason and intent of the changes made in his now famous section 22 is, besides being most unlikely, pure afterthought. He now reasons gravely about what was aimed at in the changes, but when the conference report was made he did not even know, or at least he said he did not know, that there had been any changes. He was specifically questioned about the section, and as specifically answered that it was "an old provision"; that it had "been the law for fifty years, yes, a hundred years"; that it was in the "early tariff bills," and in "every tariff bill since," including "the tariff bill of 1894." It is clear, then, that Mr. Dingley was either himself deceived or was practising deception on the House. At

any rate, the Attorney-General will not get much light from him as to the "intent" of Congress in passing a law which it did not know it was passing at all.

Civil-service reformers are not at all disturbed by the recent decision of Judge Cox of the District of Columbia Supreme Court, since supplemented by a similar deliverance from Judge Jenkins in Chicago, as to the power of removal and the legal worthlessness of executive rules on the subject. Mr. Rice, of the National Civil-Service Commission, not only finds in this interpretation of the law no basis for exultation on the part of spoilsmen, but expresses the belief that, when properly understood, it will aid in the betterment of the service. The effect of these decisions is to place the responsibility for the enforcement of the civil-service rules, not upon the courts, but upon the officials appointed by the President; and Mr. Rice holds that it is an advantage to exchange the risk of technicalities in the courts for the certainty that the Executive may act directly and dismiss his appointees if they fail to conform to his instructions. He says that President Cleveland did not hesitate to dismiss, upon the recommendation of the Civil-Service Commission, a number of his own appointees who wilfully violated the civil-service rules, and he trusts that President McKinley will compel observance of his own recently promulgated rule regarding removals by similar action whenever it may be required.

As we understand the situation, the only serious obstacle to Mr. Low's support by the Republican machine is the doubtful "loyalty" of his Republicanism. Meanwhile the State press has been making some revelations concerning the "loyalty" of Platt's chosen candidate for Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, Judge Wallace of the United States Circuit Court. His offending is much more serious than Mr. Low's. He not only refused to vote for Blaine in 1884, but, it is charged, on what seems to be good authority, and is not denied, that he voted for Cleveland in 1884, 1888, and 1892. What is far worse than this, his name was published in 1884 at the head of a list of "Cleveland Republicans" in Syracuse, and he sat as a vice-president on the platform of a Cleveland ratification meeting in Syracuse, at which Carl Schurz spoke. Nothing could be more offensive in the way of "disloyalty" than this. He not only refused to support Blaine, but he sustained with his presence a public assault upon Blaine by the most detested of all the Mugwumps. We do not set forth these facts for the purpose of in any way questioning Judge Wallace's fitness for the chief judgeship of the Court of

Appeals. On the contrary, they constitute evidence in his favor which, taken in connection with his excellent record on the bench, leads us to look upon him as an exceptionally desirable candidate. But how can Mr. Platt take this view of him? How can he reject Mr. Low as unworthy of Republican support for Mayor of New York because of his "disloyalty," and at the same time nominate Judge Wallace for the Court of Appeals?

The lynching in Indiana of several ordinary burglars and thieves is another illustration of the spread all over the Union of contempt for legal process. These men seem to have carried on their depredations for many months with impunity. They roved about the State breaking into houses and torturing people to make them reveal their valuables, and nobody meddled with them. The sheriffs of the various counties seem to have adopted the view of the California sheriff who, when invited to arrest some highwaymen, refused, saying, "The darned fellers they robbed should catch 'em." At last the Indiana dignitary was aroused and caught some of the robbers and lodged them in jail. Four hundred farmers then arose in their might, took them out of the hands of the authorities, and hanged them. All over the country we have no country police. It is only in the cities that anybody stands ready to arrest a malefactor. Out in the rural districts every man has really to be his own policeman. There is, to be sure, a sheriff, but the sheriff is an officer elected without the slightest reference to his fitness for police duty, and he, if he can be reached in time, pursues criminals, if at all, with as much or as little zeal as his convenience or temperament will permit. He cannot be called to account for neglect or misconduct except by a trial before the Governor, on charges which hardly anybody is ever willing to make. The result is, crimes committed in the country, unless they are murderous, are rarely punished. What we need in all country districts is what is called a country "police" in England and "gendarmérie" in France; that is, uniformed and salaried police, whose business it is to patrol country roads and pursue criminals. In England every village has at least one uniformed constable, and the whole are under the orders of a single county superintendent. These police are to be met everywhere, and no burglar or highway robber can make more than one stroke without finding them on his track.

That shadowy, if not shady, institution, the "National University of Chicago," which has been selling degrees in England, finds an unblushing defender of its unblushing methods in the person of "F. W. Harkins, Chancellor."

This worthy writes to the English papers, under date of August 19, asserting that his "university" is, despite the ignorance of our Bureau of Education, "regularly chartered," and legally as much entitled to grant degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. But he has no desire to "antagonize" those seats of learning; his aim is to "reach worthy persons they would never reach." His philanthropic endeavor is to bestow a "boon" on the "many who otherwise would never have known a college course or would have missed the enjoyment of its higher honors." This boon and these higher honors any worthy person may obtain from the National University of Chicago on the payment of a suitable fee. The "Chancellor" indignantly denies that this fee is as low as \$5. The mere rumor that such is the figure has "deluged" him with "applications." Applicants are informed that they must not expect a degree at "less than the cost of the engraved diploma." The Chancellor spurns \$5, but we should hate to expose him to the temptation of \$5.67. His letter is of a piece with the impudence and fraudulent nature of the whole affair, and shows in what delightful ways American ideas and institutions are publicly commended to foreigners.

Apropos of the candidacy of D'Annunzio for the Italian Parliament, a French writer has been taking a survey of the literary men of Europe who are in public life, or who at least aspire to political influence. In Italy Carducci's name comes first, of course; and Verdi, though not strictly a man of letters, is a Senator. Spain still honors literary achievement with political rewards; Cánovas himself was a distinguished historian; Castelar, Galdós, Martos, have been at once Academicians and members of the Cortes. Seven writers of more or less prominence are in the German Reichstag, Prof. Virchow being the most distinguished. Maurus Jókai is a member of the Hungarian Parliament. In England the well-known names are thicker; Morley, Lecky, Bryce, being all members of the present Parliament, to say nothing of Mr. Balfour, who made such a hit with his "Foundations of Belief"—a book which, we understand, was written years ago and then brought out as an example of the way in which a statesman might refresh himself, after vulgar political struggles, by plunging into metaphysics. America does not come within the sweep of the summary we are following—perhaps because the names of our great writers in Congress are unknown to Europeans. But surely they must have heard of Lodge, and how reluctantly he tears himself away from the still air of delightful studies to do something for silver, and to urge pleas in foreign policy which the first Republican platform called the pleas of a highwayman.

REPUBLICANISM IN THE SOUTH.

Three recent occurrences in the South illustrate very clearly the apparently insuperable difficulties which the Republicans encounter in their attempts to build up the party in that section of the Union. The first was the appointment of a Louisiana negro as Naval Officer at New Orleans; the second, the demand of Baltimore negroes for representation on the Republican legislative ticket, and its refusal by the party; and the third, the attempt to assassinate a negro postmaster in a Georgia village on account of his color.

There is no State in the farther South where the prospects of the Republicans have appeared so promising as in Louisiana. The sugar interests of the commonwealth have inclined many of the most prominent and influential whites to desert the Democrats on the protection issue. If the Republican party were composed of men of the same class as the Democratic, there is little doubt that a majority of the whites would have joined it before this time. But the trouble is that about half of the men in Louisiana are blacks, and that these blacks not only as a rule are Republicans, but also insist that they shall be rewarded for their fidelity to the party precisely as whites are rewarded in the North. Demas, the negro who was recently appointed Naval Officer, has been for a quarter of a century one of the most influential Republican leaders in the State. His "claims" to recognition were so strong that, if he had been a white man, no politician would have thought of disputing them. He maintained that the fact that he was a black man had nothing to do with the case, and the President accepted this view.

The announcement of his appointment, however, has been followed by such indignant protests from white men who have been voting the Republican ticket, as to show that the party stands no chance of carrying the State hereafter. Mr. A. A. Maginnis of New Orleans, who went over to the Republican party some years ago on account of its national policy and principles, and who is a member of the State executive committee, says that "the appointment of Demas destroys any hope for a Republican party worthy of the name in Louisiana or in the South for a long time to come." Mr. W. S. Parkerson, who became a Republican on the protective issue, declares that "the white Republicans of this State can do nothing under such leadership or such a policy." A prominent Republican who has been active for years in endeavoring to build up an organization that would command the respect of the people, predicts that at the next election for Governor the Republicans will not poll 10,000 votes in the State, notwithstanding the fact that Capt. Pharr polled 90,000 votes when he

ran for Governor only eighteen months ago, and he does not expect that the Republicans will have a single delegate in the constitutional convention to be chosen a few months hence.

It is true that Demas is a disreputable fellow in private life, and corrupt in politics; one of the charges against him, which seems to be proved, being that he secured his election as a delegate to the Republican national convention last year as an avowed supporter of Reed, and then "sold out" to the McKinley men. But he is no worse than many white men who have been given office by the President, and while his bad character aggravates the offence of his appointment, the selection of any negro would have been offensive. The white Republicans, especially those who have joined the party in recent years, and still more those white Democrats who must yet be won over if the party is to carry elections, might have stood a "decent sort of darky" in the place, but they would never consent to a policy by which even respectable negroes should be given as many important offices as they are entitled to receive on the basis of the colored vote. Mr. Parkerson puts the case bluntly and clearly when he says: "For my part, I believe in white supremacy, as much as any Democrat. I don't believe any race should dominate except the whites."

That this is the attitude of Southern whites generally appears from the Georgia attempt to shoot a black postmaster simply because he was black. There was no charge in this case that the official was disreputable or corrupt. The only objection to him was his color, but that was enough to endanger his life. While some whites in Atlanta are ready to take office if they can get it under a negro as internal-revenue collector, the overwhelming majority of the race throughout the State cannot stand the idea of a black official.

The feeling seems to be about as strong in Maryland, on the very northern edge of the South. Nobody pretended that the negroes who aspired to nomination on the Republican legislative ticket in Baltimore were not qualified in point of ability and character. Their only weakness was in the matter of color. Many white Republicans would not vote for any negro member of the Legislature, and the many white Democrats whom the Republican leaders hope to attract would be driven off by such nominations. So the black aspirants were "turned down" because they were black.

The situation appears almost hopeless for the Southern Republicans. The party managers must either "recognize" the negroes by giving them their fair share of prominent offices, or they must snub them because of their color. If they recognize the blacks, they drive off so many whites that they stand no

chance of carrying elections. If they snub the colored politicians, they disgust the colored voters, whose hearty support is always essential to success. The situation is most unfortunate, both for the South and for the nation. A division of the white vote is most desirable on all grounds, and yet the black official, even when he has a right to the place he is given, solidifies the whites against the party which he represents.

WHAT IT MEANS.

Why are the Platt Republicans fighting so desperately against the candidacy of Mr. Low? There has never been but one reason, and that is because he stands for the honest government of the city. Lauterbach put the position of the Platt machine with plainness and force in April last when he said:

"I know that you are, as one man, resolved that the battle of November shall be waged under the banner of partisan Republicanism; that the man who shall be elevated to the high office of Mayor should be a true Republican. If we cannot succeed in bringing about that result, better far that there should be placed in power a true Democrat, even a Tammany Hall Democrat, than that we should aid to elect to that state of power and place a man of no party, whose administration is responsible to no party, and who has no party at his back."

There has been no wavering from that position. Platt said virtually the same thing a few weeks later, and Quigg has been saying it, more or less guardedly, at every opportunity for the past three months. It has been said in resolutions by the county committee many times, and on Saturday Platt had it said once more by his State committee. As Lauterbach, Quigg, the county committee, and the State committee are simply Platt in all their thoughts and deliverances, what all this denunciation and threatening means is merely that Platt is bitterly opposed to Mr. Low because his candidacy threatens the overthrow of Platt's business and of Platt's government of the State. Honest government of the city, honest and fearless and just treatment of all corporations, the removal of all the great municipal departments from the control of partisan politics, would be a very serious blow to the Platt machine and to many of the influences which are behind it in its present contest. There should be no misunderstanding in the public mind on this point, for the issue involved is a momentous one for the city. It is simply a question of whether the government of the city shall be administered in the interest of the whole people or in the interest of corrupt politics.

What Platt is seeking to do is not to get concessions from the Citizens' Union which will enable him to accept Mr. Low's candidacy without "humiliation," but to frighten Mr. Low out of the field and get in his place some man whom he can hope to use in case of election. He has not a shadow of a chance of doing

this, but he cannot believe that he has not. If he could induce Mr. Low to withdraw, he would get himself out of the worst "hole" of his political life. He does not dare to run a "straight ticket," for nobody knows better than he how weak his machine is and how insignificant a portion of the Republican vote of the city it would be able to hold away from Mr. Low and in support of such a ticket. For the past ten days or more he has been using his full power—and it is undoubtedly supreme in the machine—to crush out all Low sentiment therein and to keep Low delegates from getting into his county convention. Left to itself, his own machine either would have gone for Low or would have come so near doing so that a refusal to accept him would have been impossible. If there is so much Low sentiment inside this organization, what must be the condition of the party outside of it? Everybody who is in a position to form a judgment on this question knows that an overwhelming majority of the party is in favor of Mr. Low, and will vote for him in preference to any candidate whom Platt can induce to take his nomination.

How has Platt succeeded in suppressing Low sentiment inside the machine? It is said that he has compelled Worth to abandon Low in Brooklyn, and the way in which he has been able to do this, if he has succeeded in doing it, is no secret. What defeated Worth in the Brooklyn county committee was the street-railway influence. Why Platt should be able to get that assistance it is not necessary to explain. Everybody knows why the corporations which are at the mercy of the Legislature are on Platt's side. Is he using like influence here? What is the attitude of the street-railway powers in New York towards Mr. Low's candidacy? Does anybody suppose that they are in favor of it? Would they prefer to have an absolutely honest and fearless man in the office of Mayor, or a man who would listen to their wishes?

There should be no mistake about the present crisis. All the influences which profit by corrupt government are fighting against the candidacy of Mr. Low. If he remains in the field (and he will remain in spite of all efforts to get him out), he will force all the promoters of rascally government out into the open. They must either consent to support him or go over to the side of Tammany. His candidacy will compel the selection of a far better Tammany nominee than would be possible were he not in the field. This will be the case whether the Platt machine shall consent ultimately to acquiesce in Mr. Low's nomination or not. Indeed, we share fully in the doubt of the managers of the Citizens' Union as to whether a Platt approval now will help more than it will hurt. It is a toss-up whether Mr. Low will not prove a

stronger candidate without Platt's approval than with it. What remains of the machine except Platt? His long and bitter fight against the Union has revealed with perfect clearness that he is himself the machine, that he is virtually destitute of respectable following in the party. His chief lieutenants are mere puppets of his, who are prominent in the affairs of the organization only because he has lifted them into positions of publicity. He has not a reputable party newspaper in this city on his side, and has been obliged to get his support from the old Tammany organ. He cannot induce any Republican of eminence to accept his straight nomination against Mr. Low, and it is extremely doubtful if he would himself be able to hold any such candidate in the field, if he were to nominate him, in the face of the party pressure which would come from all over the country to take him out. Under these conditions, it is small wonder that he is making such a disturbance, or that all the corrupt influences in the city are wishing him godspeed in his fight.

A SPANISH SUGGESTION.

Mr. Henry C. Lea of Philadelphia has an interesting article in the last number of the *Popular Science Monthly* on "Spanish Experiments in Coinage," which is full of suggestion for our bimetallicists. It appears, according to Mr. Lea, that the Spanish Government was engaged from 1537 for the next two hundred years, in attempts to keep copper, silver, and gold at ratios fixed by the state, independently of the market value of the metals. These attempts were extremely numerous, and consisted each of a decree, or *pragmática*, changing the relative value of one or two of the metals. Sometimes it lowered the mint's legal value of either silver or gold, in order to make it meet copper, but the larger number of these *pragmáticas* were directed to raising the value of copper. We need hardly say that copper resisted all efforts to raise it with wonderful success. Sometimes it was hoisted up for two or three months, till debtors had got their debts paid, when it dropped down again, and another *pragmática* was then issued increasing its value, or directing a fresh issue of different weight. All this time, we need hardly say, Spain, although beginning its work on copper as the richest country in the world, and receiving a constant flow of gold and silver from the American mines, was steadily declining in both strength and wealth. Justice to copper, or a desire to do something for copper, or to restore copper to its proper place in the currency of the world, was for two centuries the leading feature of Spanish financial policy. The Government never would believe that a nation which stood at the head of civilization

in arts and arms, and had more true religion than any other, could not make copper circulate at any ratio it pleased. It used all its resources, too, to enforce its decrees. After the establishment of each fresh ratio it was made punishable with confiscation, imprisonment, the galleys, and finally with death, to refuse to receive coins at their new valuations, or to fail to bring in the old ones in exchange for the new issue. Even foreign ambassadors were made liable to some of these pains and penalties.

Now the financial history of nearly every other European country resembles that of Spain. Playing tricks with the coinage, by altering its legal value or by adulterating it, was the favorite mode of escape from financial difficulties with all the European states, except the republics of Holland, Venice, and Genoa, down to the eighteenth century, when they began to have the power of borrowing. They differed from Spain, not in the greater rationality of their expedients, but in the greater mildness of the punishments inflicted for disregarding their decrees. Ever since the days of John Locke—that is, for two hundred years—instructed men have been laughing at them, and especially at the penalties they tried to impose on people who chose to put their own value on the precious metals. It has been supposed for these two hundred years—say until 1873—that this power of governments over money had been banished, with witchcraft and religious intolerance, to the garret of worn-out mediæval superstitions. But instructed men were mistaken. The close of the nineteenth century will be for ever memorable in history for the revival of one of these superstitions during the lifetime of John Stuart Mill, Herbert Spencer, Thomas Huxley, John Tyndall, and Charles Darwin. It is again believed by legislators of modern democracy that value is given to a thing not by the desire of mankind to possess it, but by the agreement of cabinets and emperors. It is now proposed to do by treaty between foreign Powers what these Powers tried for five hundred years to do by penal legislation, and failed miserably. It is announced solemnly, by men in modern clothing, that as soon as the peoples hear that cabinets and monarchs think silver, for instance, ought to be worth double its market rate, they will tranquilly accept it at such valuation, although if any one nation tried to give it this valuation by an act of Congress or Parliament, it would be greeted with roars of laughter.

It is but right, therefore, to point out to the bimetallicists that their mediæval experiment, if it succeeds at all, will not succeed unless all the mediæval conditions are revived. The treaty will not double the value of silver unless persons are punished by domestic legislation for refusing to receive it at its

treaty price, in payment of debts or in payment for goods. The notion that two metals can be kept in concurrent circulation by mere governmental agreement or declaration, without regard to the play on them of the individual mind, is a delusion, strange to say, which any one can dissipate in a moment by interrogating himself. If a man wants to borrow money of me, I should never think of leaving it to him to decide whether he would pay me in silver or in gold. If I have goods to sell, I should never think of allowing the would-be purchaser to pay me in which metal he pleased at some legal ratio. I would fix the metal and the ratio to suit my own convenience and mercantile needs. If at this moment a bimetalist were to enter my store and say, "My good sir, do you not see you are, in preferring the payment of your debt in gold, preventing the concurrent circulation of the two great metals and doing injustice to silver?" I would call my porter, and ask him to conduct this bimetalist to the door. In other words, "concurrent circulation" and a "double standard" are things which must be in the minds of the people before there is any use in putting them into treaties or acts. You cannot have two metals or two of anything circulate at values fixed by law; still less can you have them fixed by treaty. All schemes for such purposes need, therefore, to be supported, as they used to be, by penal legislation. A man who refuses to let a debtor choose which metal he will pay in, or a merchant who asks either metal exclusively for his goods, must be punished if the two metals are to be kept afloat at the same time. We would not kill him, as Philip II. of Spain proposed to do, but we would imprison him and confiscate his goods. We do not say that this would succeed, but we do say that severe legal penalties are a necessary part of the bimetallic plan. Never in the history of the world has any nation done business in two standards. One metal at a time is all the dealer or lender has ever accepted. If silver is now to have a chance, the jailer and executioner must stand behind it.

THE ISTHMUS CANAL.

In a few pages it would be hard to find a better summary of our canal diplomacy than is given in the current number of the *North American Review* by Mr. James Gustavus Whiteley. It is interesting in many ways, but in none more so than as an illustration of the difficulty which confronts diplomatic adventurers who attempt to substitute for a settled national policy some new "craze" or "fad" of their own, quite at variance with it.

With every year's discussion it becomes more and more clear that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, the compact over which the canal controversy has raged,

far from being a novel canal scheme got up by two expert diplomatists, was little more than a joint declaration by England and the United States that they would honestly apply to any canal that might be built across the isthmus a general principle of international dealing. For this principle—the freedom of the seas—the United States has fought one war, and stoutly and successfully contended in the diplomatic field for sixty years. Without going into historical details, every one knows that the idea of the ocean as common property is extremely modern. It is only three centuries since the Portuguese claimed an exclusive trade to the East, through the South Atlantic and Indian Oceans, and Grotius wrote a pamphlet to prove that they were wrong, and that the open sea was not capable of private dominion. Selden answered him, and showed by the laws and practice of all nations, ancient and modern, that the sea was in fact capable of private dominion, and Sir Matthew Hale considered the title to the narrow seas adjoining England to be vested in the King.

As commerce drove these primitive ideas out of people's heads, it began to be perceived that if the ocean itself was a common highway, interoceanic communication must also be free, and hence any interoceanic canal must be neutralized for the benefit of the world's commerce, so that no nation could have any exclusive control of it. This idea happened to be in harmony with the foreign policy of the United States, which had been that of a pacific and neutral Power. When England became a great pacific free-trade Power, her interests became almost identical with those of this country, and hence when Mr. Clayton and Sir Henry Bulwer sat down to draft their treaty, they found that they could really do very little more than announce to the world that any canal between the Atlantic and Pacific should become part of the ocean. This was what neutralization meant. This was their "general principle" of "interoceanic communication," which was actually, however, to be applied to the Suez Canal while the Isthmus Canal was still uncut.

This view of the matter remained the American view and the English view and the view of every rational man down to about fifteen years since, when Mr. Blaine began to insist that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was "obsolete," and that any canal which might be opened would be part of our "coast line." Now, waiving all other difficulties, this was virtually a notice to England that as soon as the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans should be united we would claim an exclusive title to the highway between them. We would make it part of the ocean, but would own it ourselves. In other words, the claim really was not that a particular agreement between the United

States and England had become obsolete, but that the whole modern view of the ocean as common property was obsolete. Very likely Mr. Blaine had never heard of Grotius's pamphlet, nor of Selden's, but his view of the subject (and he set up a very similar claim to Bering Sea) belongs to the mediæval world, not that of to-day.

Blaine's little venture was, therefore, doomed from the start. To make it worth trying, we should first have to convert the United States into a great belligerent Power, something like Russia, without any commerce worth protecting, armed to the teeth, and with its coast defended at all points. We should, in fact, have to give up, for the sake of the canal, all industry and commerce, and devote ourselves to that. And mark the fatality which has pursued it. England found it in the first place very easy to show that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty was not obsolete, really because it embodies a vital principle of international law, and we had to give up attempting to persuade England that we could not allow her to neutralize what must be in its nature neutral. Next, the ingenious statesman and his successors turned their attention to the negotiation of a treaty on the subject with Nicaragua, and, of course, had no difficulty whatever in getting Nicaragua to agree to a sort of protectorate. But unfortunately about this time Mr. Cleveland was elected President, and he not only withdrew the treaty, but in course of time began to make use of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which Blaine had declared obsolete, to induce Great Britain to refrain from intervening on behalf of the Mosquito Coast. So that, when the dispute begins again, the argument that the treaty is obsolete has ceased to be available to us.

It is, of course, impossible to say what the State Department, as at present organized, may or may not do; but it is hardly conceivable that Mr. Blaine's extraordinary canal venture can be tried over again. One thing is evident, that it is a total mistake to imagine it merely an Anglo-American dispute, like that as to the Maine boundary or the Venezuela frontier. It involves, just as Clayton and Bulwer said it did fifty years ago, a great principle, that of the freedom of the sea, and applies to the commerce of the world. The pretension of a protectorate is directly contrary to the history and traditions of this country, and was given diplomatic life only through the extraordinary combination of qualities which made Mr. Blaine a successful demagogue. But, after fifteen years, its present status to conservative people must be encouraging. Far from succeeding in making any headway with it, we have made it ridiculous, and should a Nicaragua or Panama Canal be cut through the isthmus, we shall almost certainly see it neutralized by the common consent of mankind, whether

we contend that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is in force or dead. Against some things even a strong nation is impotent, and one of them is the *mare liberum* of the modern world.

THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION AT TORONTO.—I.

MONTREAL, September 1, 1897.

The British Association for the Advancement of Science held its second Canadian meeting in Toronto August 18 to 25. The experiment of coming to the American side was made first in 1884, when a very successful meeting was held in Montreal. In every way successful, too, was the Toronto meeting—surprisingly so to Americans, who have come to consider geographical distance an insurmountable difficulty. There seem to be two reasons why this did not prevent a good English attendance: the first, that the American meeting is the exception. Such an ocean voyage must be the exception to most people, especially scientific people; and an exceptional call always meets with an exceptional response. The second reason, however, is more intrinsic: it is the remarkable *esprit de corps* of the British Association—the remarkable loyalty and unselfishness which actuate the officers and members. It is not to cast a slur on the members of other organizations, especially those of a similar kind in this country, to say that here is an example for scientific men to follow. The greatest men in England, those who have their duties to the Royal Society, to their professional positions, etc., still attend the British Association as a matter of course, and prepare elaborate papers, slides, etc., for its general and sectional meetings, beside the youngest aspirant for scientific recognition. A very prominent English physiologist, for example, said to the writer that he wished very much to attend the medical congress at Moscow, but felt that he must come to the British Association in support of Sir John Evans. Another factor of great moment to the success of the meetings of the Association is the committee system. Through the committees the programmes of the sections are kept corrected up to the very beginning of the daily session. This again requires great care and devotion on the part of the secretaries.

While speaking of these general matters, it may be well to refer to the practice, on the part of the officers of the sections, of inviting visitors and local men of scientific standing to become members of the sectional committees and even of the general committee, thus enlisting the interest and presence of desirable people at this meeting or that. This was especially appropriate at the Toronto meeting, in view of the presence of so many American men of science, some of whom came direct from the Detroit meeting of the American Association, and some from their vacation places. The international feature was marked, indeed, at Toronto. Besides the very remarkable number of the best-known British workers in many branches of science—whose names would fill a page—there was a sprinkling of German and French savants whose names are known in their subjects everywhere. Dr. Dohrn of the Naples Marine Biological Station, and Prof. Richet of the Faculty of Medicine of Paris may be

mentioned as among those who were in regular attendance on the zoological and physiological sections, respectively. American science was very well represented both numerically and in quality.

In the meetings themselves there was nothing but cordiality and friendship, from the international point of view. Many public expressions of what Michael Foster called "English in a broad sense," Anglo-American, sentiment—possibly the phrase *All-English* might find American users—were made. Even more striking than the remarks of Prof. Foster in the address to be referred to again were the direct expressions of Mr. Bryce at the official banquet. His address on "Jingoism" has already gone—may it continue to go—the rounds of the press, and I need not summarize it; but, far as the speaker was from meaning it, many Americans nevertheless must have hoped that it would come home in our country with the same force with which Mr. Bryce's appreciations of our national life have come home to us on earlier occasions. It must be said, however, if one is to be frank, that the Canadians are not taking the international situation humorously. This was apparent even in this scientific meeting. They feel that American friendship is precarious, American policy capricious. The present writer has lived enough in Canada to feel the chill of the extraordinary change of sentiment which has come over Canadians of all stations in the last four years. It is not expressed formally, far less personally; but it is in the air—a general tone of un-American, pro-British and imperial feeling. The Dingley tariff seems but a climax to the reasons for irritation, a new stirring up of the vigorous reaction called out by the Venezuelan message. Readers who see the *Toronto Globe* and know its editorial position will appreciate the remark that, from Lake Simcoe to the Saguenay, I found no one who did not give its platform his approval. This is a digression from science; but it may be the more suggestive as being the pronounced impression of one visiting Canada on a purely scientific errand. A certain Canadian university professor hit this feeling off neatly; he called it "an eruption of self-respect."

As to Toronto and its people, the city was most beautiful and its people most hospitable. Toronto citizens may say, apropos of lawns, flowers, and temperature: "It is an ill rain that brings nobody any good!" Toronto in August is not usually the flowery, bowery Toronto that the British visitors saw! But as much cannot be said of the people or of the civic authorities. The committee had their arrangements so well in hand that only the spark of actual arrival was needed to set off the mine. All the guests, American no less than British, will remember the untiring energy and the boundless kindness of those on whom the burden of the home arrangements fell—President London of the university, Mr. B. B. Walker of the Canadian Bank of Commerce, and the local Secretary, Prof. A. B. Macallum. Among the publications of the "Publication Committee" (Prof. R. Ramsay Wright, chairman), the "Handbook of Canada," a

*A distinguished cabinet minister of the Dominion, a man of most liberal views, was not long ago kept waiting in the antechamber of one of our Houses in Washington, and forced to bear an intemperate and insulting discussion of himself and his country pending his admission as a guest. No doubt such incidents are more widely published in Canada than in the United States.

volume of 400 pages by numerous writers, is of permanent value. The functions of a quasi-social character were a convocation at the University, at which honorary degrees were conferred upon Lord Kelvin, Lord Lister, Sir John Evans (Dr. Gibbs, the President of the American Association, was also to have been thus honored); a similar function at Trinity College (a Church-of-England institution); a reception by the Governor-General, Lord Aberdeen; a conversation at the University; an official banquet to Kelvin, Lister, and Evans; and garden parties, excursions, etc., in all the intervals. At a special meeting the city authorities also welcomed the association. In addition to all this, private citizens vied with one another in showing kindness to those visitors whom they wished to entertain. The speeches made at the banquet were of a high character, international sentiments being expressed by Lord Aberdeen, Mr. Bryce, and others. The American Association was represented among the speakers by two of its officers, Prof. Putnam and Dr. McGee.

In another brief letter I shall speak of the scientific meetings. J. M. B.

THINGS NEW AND OLD IN MODERN GERMANY.

BERLIN, August, 1897.

What in contemporary Germany most forcibly strikes one who has been out of its reach for some time is its intense modernness. It seems as though within twenty-five years the country had completely changed its moral complexion, as though it had leaped at a bound from a comparatively patriarchal condition into the very midst of modern capitalism and industrialism. That the very rapidity of this development has destroyed a good deal of what constituted the principal charm of German life in the time of our fathers, it would be idle to deny. The average German of to-day, at least if he be selected from the higher classes, is not any more the youthful enthusiast and idealist of the old liberal type; he is rather a shrewd observer and a cool-headed manager of affairs, who despises the Greeks for having gone to war without having provided themselves with the necessary wherewithal. And the average German home of the same stratum of society, far from being distinguished for its simplicity and frugality, is rather marked by a degree of high living and display that would have astounded the contemporaries of Freiligrath and Platen. Whatever one may think of the present Emperor, he certainly is an adequate representative of an age full of restless ambition, overflowing with vitality, seeking new avenues of activity in every direction, luxurious, revelling in success and enjoyment, but somehow lacking in the finer aspirations and feelings. And no truer artistic index of this newest phase of German life could have been found than the gorgeous monument which, by his Majesty's decree, has been erected in front of the austere old Hohenzollern castle in memory of Emperor William I.—the "Wilhelm in der Löwengrube," as Berlin popular humor has dubbed it, on account of the roaring lions that surround the equestrian statue of the Emperor himself—a work so pompous and supercilious that one rubs one's eyes to realize that this is meant to be the simple, good old man

whose sole ambition it was to perform his daily duty well.

Fortunately signs are not lacking that all this outward display has not yet deeply affected the nation as a whole, so that, as it has been the result of the sudden accumulation of wealth, it will pass away with the gradual absorption of this wealth by the masses. For alongside of the great industrial and commercial prosperity there has come an intellectual awakening also which, although it has not had the same outward effect thus far, cannot fail to exert its influence on the future. I refer to the educating and humanizing work done by the Socialist workmen clubs; to the extraordinary advances made by the woman movement; to the realistic wave in educational methods that set in with the school legislation of 1892; to the new public activity of the church, as shown on the one hand in the great philanthropic undertakings of the conservative Pastor von Bodelschwingh, and on the other in the efforts of the liberal Pastor Naumann to create a national workingmen's party, and, above all, to the new literary movement.

It is, indeed, a matter for national rejoicing that just at this time two men of such profound earnestness of purpose and of such signal ability to grasp the one thing needful have come to the front as Hauptmann and Sudermann. Both men are now approaching the zenith of their power; both may look back upon a career of constantly ascending achievements. Hauptmann has risen from the hopelessness of "Vor Sonnenaufgang" to the *vita nuova* of the "Versunkene Glocke"; Sudermann, from the bitter sarcasm of "Sodoms Ende" to the Messianic forebodings of his "Johannes." Both seem predestined to conciliate the ideals of the old patriarchal Germany with the unruly claims and strivings of the new industrial Germany. And even now they seem to be nearer that harmonious view of life which is the indispensable condition for the creation of truly great works of art than their master Ibsen, who, by his uncompromising radicalism, is prevented from ever fully gratifying that most natural and most human demand of the ordinary man, the desire to be elevated and edified.

While youngest Germany is thus working out its destiny under auspices upon the whole encouraging, old Germany is by no means dead. Some days ago I had a glimpse of it, when Herman Grimm gave me a drama written by his wife, Giesela von Arnim, the daughter of Bettina, which he himself, since her death some eight years ago, has edited with loving care. Herman Grimm himself is a noble representative of that golden age of letters at the beginning of this century, when it was still possible for the man of culture to develop all his faculties into a harmonious whole; and as he sat opposite me in his study, talking in his fascinating manner—a combination of frankness, melancholy, gracefulness, benignity, and humor—about his hopes for America, about the formalism of modern philological learning, about his uncle Jacob, his father, Bettina, and other noble shades of the past, it seemed to me that I had never seen a man who was so perfect an embodiment of mental and moral refinement, or such a living protest against the materialism of the day. Giesela must have been a woman in every way worthy of a man like Herman Grimm and in every way worthy of the noble tra-

ditions implied by the name of Arnim. And it is probably not too much to say that it is partly the inherited longings and aspirations of the Arnim family which in this posthumous drama of hers (the work of decades, as her husband tells us) have found a supreme poetic expression.

Its title is "Alt Schottland"; its plot centres around the futile efforts of Charles Edward, the last Stuart pretender, to reconquer the throne of his fathers. The conflict which pervades the action is similar to that now being waged between the old Germany and the new: on the one hand, chivalrous old Scotland, with its mountains and lakes, its legends and songs, its secluded country homes, its faithfulness and devotion; on the other, commercial England, with its highly developed city life, its party struggles, its popular freedom, its selfishness and greed. In the midst of this conflict there stands a figure of wonderful impressiveness and pathos: Lord Jacob MacOrn, an old Scotch nobleman whose house is drawn into the ruin of the luckless dynasty with which all his best feelings are associated. Herman Grimm makes it probable that this Scottish lord is a composite portrait, as it were, of Giesela's father, Achim von Arnim, and of Jacob Grimm. Like Jacob Grimm, he is a silver-haired patriarch, revelling in the traditions of the past and feeling nowhere happier than in the quiet realm of his library. Like Achim von Arnim, he is an uncrowned king, undisputed lord of his estate and his family, with every fibre of his being bound to his native soil, but his face turned toward the regions of the infinite and the eternal. A cousin of his, instigated by an English wife, intrigues against him, seeking to put himself in possession of his estate. The lawsuit about the ownership of this estate, which has been going on for some time, would undoubtedly have been decided in Lord Jacob's favor if the perfidious English woman had not managed to destroy the documentary evidence; so that the case cannot be settled by the courts, but has to be submitted to the good pleasure of the King. And since Lord Jacob is reported to have given shelter in his castle to the fugitive Charles Edward, the King decides against him.

The scene where the old nobleman, upon receipt of the fatal news, takes leave of the home of his ancestors, and, surrounded by his family and his servants, goes out into the world, is the climax of the play and one of the most affecting in dramatic literature. The faithless cousin and his wife are staying as guests in the house, for it is the old patriarch's birthday and a gay festival has been planned by the household. But now the guests have suddenly become the owners, and the festival is changed to a funeral. It seems as though the old squire could not tear himself away from the spot where his whole life has been spent so honorably and fruitfully. He stops at every nook and corner of the ancestral hall; he addresses the chairs, the tables hallowed by sacred memories; he lingers over the thought of the beloved ones that have passed beyond from out these walls. At last, when he comes to the place where, years ago, he pressed the last kiss upon the lips of his wife, he faints away. He is thought to be dead. The children and the household burst into cries of mingled grief and wrath. Only Elinor, his heroic daughter, feels it cannot be the last.

She kneels down at his side; she throws her arms around him; she calls up before him the form, the voice of her mother; she strikes on the harp the tune of "Old Scotland," an ancient national hymn which seems to voice the feelings of this family in all great crises. And now the old man rises as in a trance; he grasps the harp himself and fingers it mightily; the whole household breaks out with fervent passion in the beloved hymn, and thus, supported by his sons, and followed by his faithful folk, he strides away; a Cæsar, a conqueror of worlds invisible!

Truly, the whole Ibsenite company of cynics, modern prophets, and would-be reformers seem to sink into nothingness if brought face to face with characters of such genuine grandeur as this simple-minded country nobleman of the old school; and it is devoutly to be hoped that the rapid modernization of her social conditions through which Germany is at present passing, will not lead her away from the ideals of life which this man so superbly represents.

KUNO FRANCKE.

HANSEN'S FRANCO-RUSSIAN ALLIANCE.

PARIS, September 8, 1897.

M. Jules Hansen has undertaken to write the genesis of the Franco-Russian alliance, and has condensed in a small volume, "L'Alliance Franco-Russe," all that he could find on a subject which at the present moment is engrossing the attention of the whole world. Let me say first a few words respecting the author. M. Hansen is a Dane by birth. I believe he is a native of the provinces of Schleswig-Holstein, which were added by force to Prussia; he made himself very obnoxious to Bismarck, and had to leave his country. He found an asylum in France, where he has resided for many years; he became at the same time a diplomat and a journalist. The Foreign Office employed him not in the regular routine of what is called the "carrière"; he was a foreigner, and could serve only in a semi-official capacity. He wrote also in a number of papers and reviews, became an active correspondent of foreign newspapers. He knows many languages, and is probably one of the best-informed men in Paris in all matters which concern the general politics of Europe. He published his recent volume immediately after the two toasts read on a French man-of-war, the *Pothuau*, by the Emperor of Russia and by the President of the French republic. For the first time, the world was distinctly informed that France and Russia were "des nations amies et alliées." The pamphlet is dedicated to the memory of Alexander III.; for "I have," says M. Hansen, "a profound conviction that the Franco-Russian alliance is his personal work."

M. Hansen published in 1880 a book, "Les Couloirs de la Diplomatie," in which he reproduced some declarations made by Gortchakoff (the Prince was not named at the time, but his name is now given). Prince Gortchakoff said to his interlocutor: "The understanding, first between Prussia and Russia, and afterwards between the three Emperors, has ceased to exist, and is buried. The latent but ardent personal struggle which began some time ago between the two Chancellors of Russia and of Germany, is still a secret, but will some day be revealed in the memoirs of our time." Prince Gortchakoff prided himself on having persuaded Alexander II. that, by helping the

policy of Germany, Russia was merely playing the game of Bismarck.

I confess that I don't very well see that there could have been any difference between the policy of Germany and that of Bismarck; the German Chancellor was working for Germany, though he might have had his personal likes and dislikes. During his short ministry, Gambetta put himself in communication with Count Chaudordy, who knew well Prince Gortchakoff, and was on the point of sending him as Ambassador to St. Petersburg when he was upset by a vote of the Chamber. Gambetta had long spoken of the Franco-Russian alliance as an empty dream. He wrote to Madame Adam, the editor of the *Nouvelle Revue*, in 1876: "Il faut être effronté pour rêver l'alliance russe" (see number of September 1, 1897, page 144). He changed his mind, and, in his conversations with M. de Chaudordy, he went so far as to say: "I foresee that at St. Petersburg they will ask you to determine the French Government to take severe measures against Russian Nihilists in Paris. Well, you can assure them that I will do in this respect all that the Russian Chancellor asks me to do."

M. Jules Ferry, who was at the Foreign Office from November, 1883, to April, 1885, was generally thought to be favorable to an understanding with Germany and adverse to Russia. M. Hansen says that this opinion was not well founded, and that M. Ferry said to him personally: "I am profoundly convinced that France and Russia are destined to have some common understanding, as they have common interests not only in Europe, but in Egypt, in China, and in the Pacific Ocean."

In April, 1884, Prince Orloff was replaced in Paris by Baron Mohrenheim. The new Ambassador had known Prince Bismarck well in Berlin, and he had at Copenhagen often seen the future Tsar Alexander III., who made frequent visits to his father-in-law, King Christian. He found in Paris M. Hansen, whom he had known at Copenhagen. When Alexander III. ("the most Russian of Russians") ascended the throne, he became his own Minister of Foreign Affairs. He was persuaded, says Hansen, that the preponderance of Germany in Europe was a danger to Russia; but if he, the autocrat, was to place his hand in the hand of republican France, it was at least necessary that France should express her desire clearly, and should prove by actions that Russia could really trust her." An occasion came. On the 7th of January, 1887, three Bulgarian delegates came to ask the French Government to help Bulgaria in the choice of a prince and in the arrangement of her difficulties with Russia. M. Flourens, Minister of Foreign Affairs, told the delegates that, in his opinion, the Bulgarians ought to take great account of the feelings of Russia, to whom Bulgaria owed her existence. This declaration gave great satisfaction at St. Petersburg. On the 14th of March, 1887, was published a ukase of the Tsar, which forbade all foreigners to buy land in the occidental provinces of Russia. This measure gave great dissatisfaction to Germany; in answer to it, and in consequence of the friction which was more and more felt between the Governments of Germany and Russia, the text of the treaty of the Austro-German alliance was published in *extenso* (the date of the treaty is October 7, 1879) in the *Reichsanzeiger*

and the *Wiener-Abendpost* on February 3, 1888; and shortly afterwards the German Chancellor negotiated with Italy a military convention. Alexander III. was unmoved and changed his attitude no whit.

One of the difficulties which rendered the genesis of the Franco-Russian alliance so slow and seemed to make any understanding impossible, was the ministerial instability in France. In April, 1888, M. Floquet became President of a new ministry, and M. de Freycinet took the portfolio of War. There was a legend current in Paris which represented M. Floquet (then an unknown lawyer), at the time of the visit of Alexander II. to the Emperor Napoleon, screaming on the steps of the palace when the Tsar passed near him and some other lawyers, "Vive la Pologne, monsieur!" M. Floquet thought it necessary, when he became President of the Chamber, to get himself presented to M. de Mohrenheim; the legend was forgotten—somebody else had cried, "Vive la Pologne, monsieur," the Tsar had never heard the exclamation.

Under the ministry of M. Goblet there was an unfortunate incident. A war-ship, commanded by Admiral Olry, threw some shells at a band of Cossacks who, under the leadership of Atchinnoff, had established themselves in a territory belonging to France, under pretext of a mission to Abyssinia. The incident had no consequences of importance, as the French minister believed that Atchinnoff was an adventurer, who had no real mission. The successor of M. Goblet was M. Spuller, of whom M. Hansen says that "his personal character and his somewhat slow mind did not incline him to any great enterprises in the domain of foreign policy. . . . He considered prudence and reserve as the principal duties of a Minister of Foreign Affairs."

M. Ribot assumed the portfolio of Foreign Affairs on March 17, 1890, and on March 18 Europe learned with surprise that Prince Bismarck had resigned, after having conducted the affairs of Prussia and afterwards of Germany for twenty-eight years. The young Emperor was not disposed to accept an almost dictatorial direction, and "Bismarck had forfeited the friendship of Russia, which did not forgive him his ingratitude after the services which the Russian Government had rendered the German policy." On March 29, 1890, several Nihilists, denounced to the French Government by M. Durnovo, Russian Minister of the Interior, were arrested in Paris by order of the French Government, and Alexander III. offered his thanks to M. Laboulaye, the French Ambassador in St. Petersburg. This incident had probably much to do with the success which M. Laboulaye obtained when the Tsar consented to receive a French squadron at Cronstadt. For forty years no French man-of-war had been seen in the Russian waters of the Baltic. On July 25, 1891, the squadron of Admiral Gervais entered the port of Cronstadt, where it was visited by the Tsar, accompanied by the Empress and by all the members of his family. The Emperor of Russia heard bareheaded and standing the "Marseillaise." Popular demonstrations took place in St. Petersburg. It was felt that the Franco-Russian friendship was assuming the character of an alliance. M. de Laboulaye and M. de Giers, after the visit to Cronstadt, set to work to give a concrete form to these friendly relations. After negotiations, se-

veral times interrupted, final signatures were exchanged before the close of the year. They were given by M. de Mohrenheim and by M. Ribot in the name of their respective governments. "From this historical hour," says M. Hansen, "it may be said, the two countries emerged from the isolation in which they were before."

It was thought necessary to complete this accord by a military convention, as it was notorious that, since 1888, the Powers of the Triple Alliance had signed military protocols providing against all the eventualities of a war. Prince Bismarck and Moltke had taken a personal part in the negotiation of these conventions. In case of mobilization, these conventions gave an advantage to the Triple Alliance. M. de Freycinet in France and Gen. Vannovsky in Russia prepared the terms of a dual military convention, which was signed *ad referendum* in the autumn of 1892. In 1893 the Tsar decided to send to Toulon a squadron under Admiral Avellan, to return officially the visit to Cronstadt. Meanwhile negotiations were continuing between the two governments. M. Casimir Périer affixed his signature, at the end of 1893, to a new diplomatic document, which was signed in Petersburg by M. Giers; at the same moment the military convention received its definitive signatures, and thus, says M. Hansen, was accomplished "one of the most important acts of this century."

Here the account of M. Hansen stops. Great events have followed: the tragical death of M. Carnot and of Alexander III., the visit of the new Emperor, Nicholas II., and of the Empress to France in October, 1896, and lately the visit of M. Faure to Russia; but they have brought no change in the situation in its diplomatic aspect. The Franco-Russian alliance has existed since 1893.

Correspondence.

AN EMENDATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent issue, you mentioned that a law had been passed lately by the Iowa Legislature which imposed a tax upon the premium income of European insurance companies greater than the tax imposed upon the premium income of American companies, and that such discrimination is forbidden by an article of the Treaty of 1850 between the United States and Switzerland. This article you quoted, with less than your usual care, as follows:

"No higher impost, under whatever name, shall be exacted from the citizens of one of the two countries residing or established in the other country in which they reside, nor any contribution whatever to which the latter shall not be liable."

Between the words "other" and "country" should be inserted the words "than shall be levied upon citizens of the." Even then, the sentence is not quite a model of precise expression. Somewhat clearer is the French version, which parallels the English in the Statutes at Large, vol. xl., p. 587.

Yours truly,

F. J. B.

BALTIMORE, September 16, 1897.

GORDON AND HIS MISSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The God of things as they are has

not had His dues in Gen. Gordon's case. Will you kindly insert a correction as to matter of fact? Your issue of September 2 remarks that when Gordon reached Khartum "he began to cry out that the Mahdi must be smashed up and that *evacuation* would be an indelible disgrace." What he really said was that *abandoning the garrisons* would be an indelible disgrace; a very different utterance, for evacuation meant the safe withdrawal of the various garrisons, which made one-half his mission; Mr. Gladstone's words in the House of Commons being that he had been sent "for the double purpose of evacuating the garrisons and reconstituting the country." Gen. Gordon's honesty of purpose and of deed is plain enough for those who take the trouble to investigate the *facts*.

LOUISE KENNEDY.

SEPTEMBER 18, 1897.

[Gordon's mission, however, was intended to be a peaceful one, and his conversion of Khartum into the base of operations for a ruthless war was neither in the spirit of his instructions nor calculated to relieve the garrisons whose abandonment he thought would be "mean." In short, his policy was non-evacuation.—ED. NATION.]

DANTE AND HIS COUNTRYMEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Dantophilist's" explosion of righteous wrath, in your issue of September 16, against the notion that "in Italy itself the great poet is a name to worship conventionally more than elsewhere," reminds me of a like explosion on the part of Byron. I note in his journal, January 29, 1821:

"Read Schlegel. Of Dante he says, 'that at no time has the greatest and most national of all Italian poets ever been much the favourite of his countrymen.' 'Tis false! There have been more editors and commentators (and imitators, ultimately) of Dante than of all their poets put together. *Not* a favourite! Why, they talk Dante—write Dante—and think and dream Dante at this moment [1821] to an excess which would be ridiculous but that he deserves it."

The cheap two-volume Murray edition quotes, in a foot-note, this parallel utterance from Medwin's 'Conversations':

"I don't wonder," said Lord Byron, "at the enthusiasm of the Italians about Dante. He is the poet of liberty. Persecution, exile, the dread of a foreign grave, could not shake his principles. There is no Italian gentleman, scarcely any well-educated girl, that has not all the finer passages of Dante at the finger's ends; particularly the *Ravennese*. The Guiccioli, for instance, can almost repeat any part of the *Divine Comedy*." J. M. H.

ITHACA, September 21, 1897.

TOKENS OF WOE ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having but just returned from a sojourn of more than a year in Greece and Europe, I have been overhauling the periodicals that have accumulated in my study during that period. Consequently, I have just discovered Mr. Ridgeway's learned article in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for 1896, entitled, "What People Produced the Objects Called Mycenaean?" An outline or announcement of this article had already

appeared in the *Academy* in July, 1895. Mr. Ridgeway examines the ancient authors to see if they supply us with accounts of any people which (1) occupied Peloponnesus, Attica, Crete, Thessaly, Boeotia, Thera, Asia Minor, Egypt, Rhodes, Cyprus, Italy, and (2) used a form of script which was intelligible to people who lived in places distant from each other; for instance, in Peloponnesus and in Asia Minor.

The following is a survey of the results of Mr. Ridgeway's profound study:

(1.) An ancient people called Pelasgi inhabited Greece.

(2.) A class of remains are found not only in Hellas, but in Asia Minor, Egypt, Rhodes, Thera, Crete, Italy, and Sicily, all of which places, according to Greek tradition, were occupied by Pelasgians.

(3.) The Pelasgians were the primitive inhabitants of Mycenae and Tiryns, and were conquered by the Achaeans only a short time before the period of the Homeric epos.

(4.) The Pelasgians were the builders of Mycenae and Tiryns.

(5.) The palace of Menelaus at Sparta was built by the Pelasgians.

(6.) The same is true of the palace of Alcinoos.

(7.) The prehistoric walls at Athens are Pelasgic.

(8.) The prehistoric building at Cnossus in Crete is Pelasgic.

(9.) The Tokens of Woe are mentioned by Homer in connection with Proetus, the Pelasgian King of Tiryns.

(10.) The Tokens of Woe were understood in Lycia at a time when there were absolutely no Greek colonies on the seaboard of Asia Minor.

(11.) Symbols resembling the Hittite have been found on gems of Crete and Peloponnesus, and on vessels from Peloponnesus and Attica.

(12.) Legends show contact between Greece and the East in three quarters: (1) Egypt (Io, Danaus), (2) Lycia (Cyclops, Bellerophon), (3) northwest end of Asia Minor (Argonauts, Telephus, Pelops).

(13.) There are serious discrepancies between the civilization of the Homeric poems and that of the Mycenaean age.

The Pelasgians were the only race that answers all the conditions; it was, therefore, the creator of the Mycenaean art and the inventor of the Tokens of Woe. Mr. Ridgeway is but carrying out the view held by Thucydides in regard to the Pelasgians, who yielded to the superior valor and weapons of a kindred but less numerous and less civilized race. J. R. S. STERRETT.

AMHERST, September 13, 1897.

A UNIQUE REFERENCE LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Grosvenor Library of this city is a reference library from which books cannot be taken away. It is in receipt of a small income from the city. I wish to draw your attention to the way in which its money is being expended. As I cannot trespass upon your valuable space to any great extent, I take one subject—the human intellect. The following works, all of them of the first class, are not obtainable at the Grosvenor: Maudsley's 'Physiology of the Mind,' the same author's 'Pathology of the Mind,' Bastian's 'The Brain as an Organ of Mind.' The following books have been

bought *this year*: Fowler's 'Self-Instructor in Phrenology' (published in 1857), Combe's 'Elements of Phrenology' (published in 1825), Grimes's 'Etherology and the Phrenology of Mesmerism and Magic Eloquence' (published in 1851).

I presume that the excuse for buying the last three books is that there has been a demand for them. A suitable answer would be that it is the duty of the trustees of a library aided by the city to try to turn the minds of readers in the right direction, and that a person who asks for a book upon phrenology should be referred to a cyclopaedia, where he will learn the truth, and not to an antiquated treatise which contains virtually nothing that is true. The library of which I am writing has no money to waste upon books that have no value beyond some trivial historical interest, and the absence of standard works by recognized authorities reflects no credit upon the institution. Since the beginning of the year, more than a dozen out-of-date pseudo-scientific books have been placed upon the shelves, while true science has, in my opinion, been neglected, although some scientific works have been bought.

If any of your readers know of any other reference library, aided by city funds, where a similar policy is pursued, I should be interested to learn the name of it.—Yours, etc.,

LAWRENCE IRWELL.

76 WEST TUPPER STREET,
BUFFALO, N. Y., September 14, 1897.

Notes.

Preliminary autumn announcements of D. Appleton & Co. include 'Industrial Freedom,' by David MacGregor Means, with an introduction by David A. Wells; 'Evolutionary Ethics and Animal Psychology,' by E. P. Evans; 'The Psychology of Suggestion,' by Boris Sidis, with an introduction by William James; 'Bibliography of Education,' by Will S. Monroe; 'Punctuation, and Other Matters of Form,' by F. Horace Teall; 'The Story of the Cowboy,' by E. Hough; R. Lydekker's 'Natural History,' illustrated; 'French Literature,' by E. Dowden; 'A History of Dancing,' by Gaston Vuillier, copiously illustrated; and a translation of the 'Suppressed Letters of Napoleon' just edited by Léon Lecestre.

Edward Arnold will bring out 'Recollections of Aubrey De Vere'—of in the subjective sense; 'The Autobiography and Letters of the Right Hon. John Arthur Roebuck,' edited by Robert Eaton Leader; 'A Memoir of Anne J. Clough,' principal of Newnham College, by her niece, Bertha Clough; 'Style,' by Prof. Walter Raleigh; 'Old English Glasses,' drinking vessels, by Albert Hartshorne, illustrated; 'Rowing,' by R. C. Lehmann; 'The Art of Deer-Stalking,' by William Scrope; 'Reminiscences of a Huntsman,' by the Hon. Grantley F. Berkeley; 'Benin, the City of Blood,' by Commander Bacon, R. N.; and 'The Chippendale Period in English Furniture,' by K. Warren Clouston.

Fleming H. Revell Co. have nearly ready 'Seven Years in Sierra Leone,' by Dr. A. T. Pierson, who records the missionary service of William A. B. Johnson from 1816 to 1823; and 'The Gist of Japan,' by the Rev. R. B. Peery.

The new firm of book publishers in this city, Doubleday & McClure Co., begin with a

series of "Little Masterpieces," edited by Prof. Bliss Perry of Princeton; 'Tales of the Real Gypsy,' by Paul Kester; 'The Open Boat, and Other Tales of Adventure,' by Stephen Crane; 'Character Stories,' 'Taken from Life,' verses by J. Whitcomb Riley, etc., from that periodical; and 'Bird Neighbors,' by Neltje Blanchan, with an introduction by John Burroughs and fifty full-page pictures in color. They will also control the New York market for Mark Twain's forthcoming work, 'Following the Equator.'

Macmillan Co. will have ready next month 'Social and Ethical Interpretation in Mental Development,' by Prof. James Mark Baldwin of Princeton.

George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia, have in press 'The Latimers,' a tale of the Western Insurrection of 1794, by Henry Christopher McCook, and 'Ole Rabbit's Plantation Stories,' collected from original sources by Mary Alicea Owen, with illustrations.

'The New Man: A Chronicle of the Modern Time,' by Dr. Ellis Paxson Oberholzer, will be published by the Levytype Co., Philadelphia.

'Memorial Day, and Other Poems,' by Richard Burton, and 'Free to Serve,' a tale of Colonial New York, are to be issued next month by Copeland & Day, Boston.

The fifth volume of 'Harvard Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature' (Ginn & Co.) will be a Child memorial volume, with contributions by Profs. C. E. Norton, A. S. Hill, F. B. Gummere, G. L. Kittredge, Kuno Francke, and others.

William Doxey, San Francisco, will issue a new and enlarged edition of 'The Purple Cow,' a collection of vagaries from Gellert Burgess's *Lark*; the '*Lark Almanac*,' thirty-two cartoons from that periodical of blithe memory, with decorated cover; 'The Little Blue Fox, and Other Creatures,' by President Jordan of Leland Stanford University, illustrated by child readers; and 'The Art of Little Children,' by Corrado Ricci, translated by Louise Maitland.

There is much that is mediocre in 'Voices of Doubt and Trust,' selections, in prose and verse, by Volney Streamer (Brentano's), yet it is a fresh compilation that will commend itself to many. It has not overlooked such late appearances as Goldwin Smith's 'Guesses at the Riddle of Existence' and William James's 'Will to Believe.' Huxley and Morley are freely drawn upon, and here is Darwin's famous confession of perplexity on the subject of the existence of a supreme being. Good judgment has been shown in what has been taken from Whitman; the Browning excerpts are not remarkable in themselves. We have observed some and suspected more carelessness in the proof-reading—"thou are," p. 8, "new-pledged hope," p. 163, and punctuation that needs rectifying even if true to the original.

In the "Heroes of the Nations" Series (G. P. Putnam's Sons), Col. W. C. Church gives the 'Life of Gen. Grant.' It is a somewhat larger volume than most of the similar series, and the author has used his space judiciously to introduce occasional quotations from others. It takes the strongly eulogistic view of every phase of Grant's life, military and civil, as seems almost a necessity in the conception of such a class of books. Its variation in method from the preceding lives of Grant will, however, give it a distinct and useful place.

'Tom Moore in Bermuda' is the title of a

little brochure privately printed at Lancaster, Mass., by the author, J. C. Lawrence Clark. It gathers up the facts and some of the legends connected with Moore's residence in the "bright little Isle," which, with liberal citations of his verse and a good supply of illustrations, make a not unpleasing whole. Moore continued to hold the office of Registrar in Bermuda for many years after his return to England, his actual discharge of its duties having been limited to less than four months. In 1844 he was removed from office by an unfeeling government, on the ground of non-residence—a non-residence which had then continued for forty years! Truly those were the pre-Adamite days of the civil service.

Mr. R. Van Bergen's 'The Story of Japan,' published by the American Book Company, is an extremely accurate as well as entertaining sketch of the history of Japan for school or home reading. Its numerous pictures are very valuable for a history, and are intelligible specimens of Japanese art. Map, index, and print are unexceptionable, and in the whole work we have been able to discover but one misprint, that of *Lagoda* for *Ladoga*, the name of an American ship. Mr. Van Bergen's position, as a teacher in the Nobles' School in Tokyo, and his knowledge of Dutch and Japanese, make this a trustworthy sketch of the history of Japan, and it is rendered attractive by a good many characteristic anecdotes and classic stories. Besides dealing not too roughly with the ancient mythology, he brings the story down to the present time, showing clearly, also, that the moving force in Japan and the creator of public opinion is still, as for a thousand years past, the gentry, who constitute about one-tenth of the nation. The style is suitable for young people.

The thirty-second annual issue of the 'Jahrbuch der Schweizer Alpenclub,' just published by Schmid & Francke at Berne, is a volume of 452 pages, with thirty-nine illustrations and a *Beilage* containing four maps and a catalogue of the library of the club. The contents are chiefly records of excursions with their scientific results, and reviews of recent works on Switzerland. Especially interesting are Dr. A. Zschokke's "History of Mountain-Climbing," H. Correvon's "The Flora of Switzerland and its Preservation," and a paper on "The Periodic Variations of the Glaciers of the Alps," by F. A. Forel and L. Du Pasquier.

Irma von Troll-Borostyáni's 'Das Weib und seine Bekleidung' (Leipzig: Spohr) is an earnest and urgent plea for a thorough dress-reform as one of the essential conditions of woman's success in higher education and in the realization of her present aims and aspirations. The author's strictures on female apparel as unhygienic, unesthetic, and unpractical are sensible, and ought to be effective at a time when the supremacy of the bicycle has already begun to emancipate the fair sex from the tyranny of fashion.

In its fore part the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for September is emphatically a memorial number. Here are to be found the three addresses in commemoration of Col. Robert Gould Shaw, with a photographic view of St. Gaudens's masterpiece; and here also are portraits of the late Prof. Lane and Prof. F. D. Allen, with brief sketches. Prof. Hart, by the way, calls attention to the rule at Harvard that members of the faculty die in vacation rather than in harness. Mr. T. W. Higginson contributes some highly inter-

esting correspondence with his father on the part of Dr. Cogswell, Ticknor, and Everett during their stay at Göttingen. In the abundant provision of university news are to be noticed the formal transfer and taking over of the Peabody Museum, and the movement to erect a suitable memorial to the late Charles Elliot, "to associate his name with some permanent feature of that Metropolitan Park System which is so largely his creation." Contributions may be sent to C. S. Rackemann, No. 23 Court Street, Boston. The committee to determine the application of the fund is headed by Charles Francis Adams, and embraces Prof. C. S. Sargent, Messrs. Olmsted, Mr. H. S. Hunnewell, and other apt counsellors of both sexes.

The October number of the *American Historical Review* will contain a series of interesting letters from and to Eli Whitney, displaying more perfectly than has hitherto been possible the history of the invention and early promotion of the cotton gin—an invention which has been groundlessly supposed to have arrested the groundlessly assumed tendency of Southern slavery, at the close of the last century, to terminate of its own accord. The same number and the succeeding will print a posthumous chapter of the late Prof. Herbert Tuttle's 'History of Prussia,' covering nearly the whole of the campaign of 1758.

We are glad to notice, among the numerous signs of a revival of historical study in the South, the appearance of the first of an annual series of Historical Papers, published by the Historical Society of Trinity College, Durham, N. C. A sub-title, "Reconstruction and State Biography," is descriptive only in part of the contents, which range as far back as "Raleigh's New Fort in Virginia, 1585." Still, the most recent topics treated are the most profitable, particularly the opening paper on "Fort Hamby on the Yadkin," a striking picture of local demoralization on the break-up of the Confederate army in 1865. Among the several biographies is one of the late zealous antiquarian, Edward Graham Davis, whose portrait accompanies it. The papers are the work of students, and are purposely not severely revised for the literary form.

The Yukon gold fields and Alaska are the subject of a very useful note in the September Bulletin of the Boston Public Library relative to a list of the works, practically complete, which it contains on this region. There is also a list of fifty-one titles of the most valuable magazine articles which have appeared from 1870 to the present time.

The project of constructing a railway from the Mediterranean to Aleppo, which twenty-seven years ago excited so much interest, has been revived, this time by the son of the Governor-General of the district. He is making strenuous efforts to obtain a concession to build the road, and does not ask for an indemnity, believing the traffic would be amply sufficient to enable it to run on a paying basis. The American Consul at Alexandretta, the Mediterranean terminus of the proposed line, and the only natural harbor on the Syrian coast, estimates that caravans numbering half a million animals annually come to this port from Bagdad and the country beyond the Euphrates. There are shipped to the United States alone 60,000 camel-loads of licorice root yearly. The port is served by twenty-four regular steamers a month, besides "numerous 'tramps' and sailing ships."

According to recent news from Athens, Kavvadias has found an inscription which assigns the building of the temple of the Nike Apteros to the middle of the fifth century B. C. with absolute certainty. This is very gratifying to Dörpfeld, who has maintained, against Furtwängler and Wolters, that this temple was older than the Propylæa.

Recently an inscription was found in Megalopolis concerning Diæus, the Megalopolitan General who is mentioned at length, but with disapprobation, by Polybius and Pausanias. He was General of the Achæans repeatedly during the period of the capture of Corinth, and summoned the Achæans to the hopeless struggle against Mummius. He was censured because, after the defeat, he fled from Corinth to Megalopolis, where, after killing his wife to prevent her being made prisoner, he committed suicide by drinking poison.

When the Jubilee honors were distributed, it was announced that Queen Victoria had awarded a peerage to Sir Donald Smith, a wealthy Canadian, who represents the Dominion in London as High Commissioner. Much curiosity arose as to the title the new peer would choose. Some hundreds of telegrams went to Sir Donald from Canada, saluting him as Lord Glencoe; but, if that had been the new peer's selection, he would have raised the whole clan of the Macdonalds against his presumption. Then, there was the chance of Montreal being taken for the title, for it is with that city that Sir Donald has been particularly identified. Here, again, there was an objection, for that place had already been annexed when Mr. Powlett Thompson, a former Governor of Canada, was raised to the peerage as Baron Sydenham and Montreal. The existence of these difficulties, no doubt, caused the delay in the gazettement of the grant of the peerage, which was done only on the 24th of August, when it was made known that the High Commissioner for Canada had become "Baron Strathcona and Mount Royal, of Glencoe in the County of Argyll, and of Mount Royal in the Province of Quebec and Dominion of Canada." The result is a compromise, which shows that the junior nobleman of the United Kingdom had one eye upon Glencoe and the other eye upon Montreal.

F. Gutekunst, the well-known photographer of Philadelphia, has issued copies of a striking imperial portrait of Mrs. John Drew, taken in 1895. The distinguished actress is represented as she appeared in private life, and the entire absence of theatrical accessory or affectation is one of the most noteworthy and pleasing characteristics of the picture. The facial expression is admirably natural, and is strongly suggestive of the mental and bodily vigor with which Mrs. Drew was endowed almost to the very end of her long life.

—Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce for early publication the third five-year supplement (1892-96) to 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature.' The late Dr. Poole's associate and successor in this work, Mr. W. I. Fletcher, has been assisted in the present new issue by Mr. Franklin O. Poole of the Boston Athenæum, a nephew of Dr. Poole. The volume, as the first issue since Dr. Poole's death, will contain his portrait and a brief biographical sketch. This supplement will be nearly one-third larger than either of the preceding ones, and will con-

tain references to 1,355 volumes, belonging to 185 distinct periodicals. These are all that have survived of the 404 publications which have been included in Poole's Index, all the others having been suspended. Of the sixty-four oldest periodicals in the Index, beginning with the *Edinburgh Review* in 1801, just one-eighth survive, three of the eight being American, namely, the *North American Review* (1813), *American Journal of Science* (1819), and *Journal of the Franklin Institute* (1826). While only three-eighths of the survivors are American, forty, or nearly two-thirds, of the original sixty-four were such. The following tabular statement is interesting:

Decade.	No. of "Poole" sets started.	No. stopped.	Net gain.
1801-10	6	0	6
1811-20	18	2	16
1821-30	22	15	7
1831-40	29	23	6
1841-50	47	21	26
1851-60	31	14	17
1861-70	57	29	28
1871-80	49	45	4
1881-90	90	37	53
1891-96, 6 years	55	23	32

As these figures relate only to the periodicals included in 'Poole's Index,' which is always decidedly conservative as to the inclusion of new ventures, they show but a part of the truth as to the rapid rise and fall of periodical publications.

—Some dozen or more years ago a separate department of classical antiquities was created at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, and an expert was appointed as its curator. The wisdom of this step soon made itself apparent in the numerous and well-chosen additions to the collection of casts of Greek and Roman sculpture, and still more in the publication of an excellent catalogue of this collection. Such a catalogue is indispensable to every serious student in the earlier stages of his progress, but to this day no other considerable museum in the country has anything valuable of the sort to offer. The greatest forward stride, however, has been made by the Boston Museum within the past three years. Generous bequests have put the institution in possession of funds, no small portion of which has been devoted by the Trustees to the purchase of original works of Greek art. Opportunities for such purchases do not lie in every one's way, but they may be hunted out by alert and experienced connoisseurs, as new objects of value are unearthed or as old collections in private hands are dispersed. Such opportunities have been skillfully seized in the interest of the Boston Museum. The acquisitions of the last two years have been for some time installed, and a third lot is, we understand, soon to arrive. If measured by comparison with the great museums of Europe, the collections in Boston are still small. Only a beginning has been made, but such as already exercises a potent attraction upon students and lovers of Greek art, far and near. Here, as nowhere else in America, fine examples of almost every branch of Greek art may be seen and enjoyed. Thus there are excellent specimens of the beautiful coinage of Greece, as well as of Greek goldsmiths' work. The collection of Greek vases is more extensive, and bids fair to become, in quality at least, one of the famous collections of the world. There are already in the cases pieces of which any one is worth a long journey to see, and we hear that a vase more magnificent than anything previously acquired, a great crater, well known to specialists as one of the most superb

productions of the Greek potter's art, is soon to be received. To crown all, there are pieces of sculpture in bronze and in marble of such beauty that they would be eagerly coveted by any museum in the world. Photographs and casts, indispensable as these are, can never take the place of such original masterpieces. The Trustees of the Boston Museum, by their enlightened and liberal policy, have earned a gratitude which will be more and more widespread as the facts become more generally known and as the serious study of art history develops among us. Should they go on in the path upon which they have entered, Boston may come to take rank, if not with Athens, Rome, Paris, London, and Berlin, at least with Vienna, Munich, and Florence, as a centre for the study of Greek art.

—An Anglo-American sends us the following note from London:

"When in the neighborhood of Oxford recently, I looked in at the Bodleian Library. The Assistant Librarian, Mr. Falconer Madan, was so good as to draw my attention to the fact that, among the Clarendon manuscripts calendared by him, there were interesting papers relating to the early colonies in North America. Fellow-students of the history of English Colonies in America will welcome the following extracts from Mr. Madan's work:

"16188. Papers relating to the colonies of New England between 1661 and 1713. The places or subjects specially prominent are New York, about which there are many papers, 1667-1713; and the Five Nations of the Indians, 1701-08. There are also papers about the Bermudas (1661: fol. 1.), Rhode Island (1664-5: fol. 5), Connecticut (1660: fol. 10), Pennsylvania (1694-1701: fol. 24, cf. 160, 'State of the case between William Penn and the Fords,' 1707), Canada (1702: fol. 38). Among the separate papers are: (a, f. 1. 19) 'Copy of my L^d Bellomont's letter to my L^d Summers, N York, 12th May 1698'; (b, fol. 67), 'Journal of the General Assembly for . . . New York, . . . 5 Oct. 1703 to 23 Oct.'; (c, fol. 77), 'An Act for the defence of the Frontiers,' 1704; (d, fol. 217), 'Proposal as a means for the Advancement in the province of New York . . . by the Rev. John Sharpe, 11 Mar. 1712-3, suggesting a public school, library, and chapel, and giving a list of books 'given towards laying the Foundation of a Public Library at New York,' by Sharpe, May 15, 1715 (fol. 225). Some of the documents are petitions to the first Earl of Clarendon; many are connected with the administration of his grandson, the third Earl, as Lord Cornbury, Governor of New York (1701-08). At fol. 205 is a letter from the latter (Apr. 28, 1710), alluding to his 'escape' from New York, and at folio 150, 'Extracts from some letters & memorials relating to the Rt. Hble the L^d C . . . ' 1702-07, testifying to his care for the Church. These papers appear, from fol. 8, to be partly at least lots 105 (and 106-8) on the second day of the Radcliffe sale, 1764. Now MSS. Clarendon 102

"16189. 1 (p. 1) 'A brief Narrative of the late Negotiation between his Majesties Colony of the Massachusetts, and . . . his Majesties Commissioners,' 18 May 1664-4 Mar. 1664-5, followed by a comment on it, 2 (p. 113). A brief description of New England, the present Government & the Towns therein, written in about 1670; beginning 'Westward from Pennobscott.' The writer fortified a house in 'Winnisime' near Boston in A. D. 1625 (p. 6). 3 (p. 141) A Latin report, by Sir Walter Walker, on the claim of France to the restoration of Nova Scotia (Acadia), written in about A. D. 1665, and signed by the author; beginning, 'Recepto omni cum reverentia.' Now MSS. Clarendon 103 "

—K. Waliszewski's 'Peter the Great' (Apuletons) has been translated from the original French by Lady Mary Loyd in the most admirable manner, with very few exceptions. The author is very decided in his views, and, as a whole, eminently fair in his handling of disputed points, and in his inferences

from the facts which he draws from widely chosen historical sources. Occasionally, he seems inclined to take the ground which a Pole and a Roman Catholic would naturally occupy where questions of national character and religion are concerned, and the reader feels that the matter in hand might, possibly, admit of a diametrically opposite interpretation. The point which he does succeed in setting forth with praiseworthy force and clearness is, that Peter was the heir of his ancestors' ambitions and strenuous efforts to obtain Western civilization, and not exclusively an original genius in any direction, although in all directions he was the typical Russian. This is, in fact, the text upon which the author insists, and rightly. "Peter," he says, "was not a great man only—he was the most complete, the most comprehensive, and the most diversified personification of a great people that has ever appeared," and he shows how his hero aroused the slumbering talents and the spiritual powers of his now mighty empire. A very excellent feature, which greatly facilitates the difficult task of making a satisfactory portrait of such a man, is the division of the book into major and minor topic-parts. Another very valuable feature, especially for those who have access to foreign libraries and can read the necessary languages, lies in the detailed and exact references to the historical sources of information. The style is graphic, and the volume is as easy to read and as entertaining as a sensational novel, to which class of literature such a biography seems inevitably akin, at times. One or two serious misprints and errors should be corrected in future editions; such as, 1728 instead of 1718, on p. 281; and the statement on p. 443 that the Patriarch Philaretus ruled the country, in the name of his brother Michael, the first of the Romanoffs. Michael, elected Tsar at the age of sixteen, was the son of the Patriarch Philaretus. We may add, with a view to helping the English reader over the difficulties of pronunciation, that the accents upon the Russian words refer to the quantity of the vowels in French, not to the emphasis upon syllables in the original.

—'Le Sifflet et la Claque' is the title of a curious historical study, full of research, which M. Louis Schneider contributes to the *Revue Bleue* of July 24. M. Schneider holds that both applause and hissing, in modern civilization, date from an epoch not more remote than the seventeenth century. In the Middle Ages and during the Renaissance, theatrical representations were organized by the Church, and so were for the most part sheltered from criticism. Hissing was, in fact, a novelty to Racine, who attributes its origin to a comedy of Fontenelle's, "Aspar," which was played in 1689:

"Mais quand sifflets prirent commencement,
C'est l'y jo-ais, j'en suis t-m-o-n-f-é-é-é,
C'est à l'Aspar du sieur de Fontenelle."

Up to that time, he said, an audience when bored at the theatre had the choice only between going to sleep and going away. The claque is of even later date, an offspring of the eighteenth century, born at the epoch when actors, becoming of more and more importance, and also more and more "cabotins," found the need of assured and constant applause. The public, almost from the beginning, resented the demonstrations of the "Romans," as claquers were then called, and a long contest began. This was par-

ticularly lively during the First Republic, and continued under the Empire. In 1809 it had become of sufficient gravity to occasion the arrest of the leader of the claque, a certain Leblond, a wig-maker, with forty of his followers. The police report on this occasion shows that Leblond received tickets and jewels and money from dramatic authors, as well as from the actors and actresses. It would be long to follow out the steps of M. Schneider's interesting history. It is enough to say that the claque still survives throughout Europe, and is really as flourishing as ever in spite of all attempts to abolish it. In 1877 the Théâtre-Français attempted its suppression, but in vain. The Théâtre-Historique actually suppressed it; but it was the Théâtre-Historique, and not the claque, that died. In Vienna last year a fierce campaign was carried on against it, but the singers at the Imperial Opera threatened to strike in case this were not given up, and only some months ago the jubilee of Schoentag, for twenty-five years the leader of the opera claque, was celebrated at Vienna. Schoentag, however, has a certain quasi-critical authority: he is a judge of playgoers, if not of plays, and is able often to give valuable advice to authors and actors. As to the vexed question of the right of the spectator to express his feelings by hisses or applause, French law appears to lay down as a rule that one may applaud as much as he likes, but hisses at his peril.

—According to the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen, Dr. Edvard Ehlers's study of leprosy in Iceland is soon to have a practical result. The members of the I. O. O. F. of Denmark were so impressed by the statement of this specialist as to the increase of the disease that the order undertook, last year, to raise a fund for building a hospital on the island where those suffering might receive proper treatment without exposing others to contagion. Last May, when a large part of the required 100,000 kroner (\$27,000) had been subscribed, Messrs. Beyer and Thuren, respectively physician and architect, were sent to Iceland to decide on the site and the character of the building, and to make arrangements with the local Government. They were received by the latter with the greatest enthusiasm, and everything was done to facilitate their work. The city of Reykjavik has presented for the site the peninsular Langarnaes, which is about two miles out of town, and all running expenses are to be borne by the Government of Iceland. Should the building for three consecutive years be put to any other use, it is to revert to the Order; and in case at any time leprosy should die out on the island, its future disposition is to be determined by joint agreement of the Order and the Althing. A contract for the foundation has been made, and the building, which is to be of wood, as offering a better protection against earthquakes than either brick or stone, will be built either in Norway or Sweden and sent in sections. Not the least important feature in this new movement in the battle with disease is the power given to the authorities, by a recent act of the Althing, to compel the isolation of patients that are unwilling to leave their homes. The only source for regret is the fact that the new hospital will accommodate only a quarter of the 250 lepers in Iceland.

RAMSAY'S CITIES OF PHRYGIA.

The Cities and Bishoprics of Phrygia; being an Essay of the Local History of Phrygia from the Earliest Times to the Turkish Conquest. By W. M. Ramsay, D.C.L., LL.D., etc. Vol. I., Part II., West and Central Phrygia. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1897.

In a recent issue the author of the article on the British School at Athens mentioned the timorousness of British archaeologists in the face of the classical and ecclesiastical traditions that prevail among British scholars. The above title of Mr. Ramsay's book illustrates the point in question, for on the continent of Europe the secondary title would be regarded as exactly descriptive of the scope of the work. But Mr. Ramsay has to pacify the conservative element, which is more or less hostile to archaeology, pure and simple, and consequently the primary title of the book becomes 'The Cities and Bishoprics of Phrygia,' whereas, in point of fact, the Bishoprics of Phrygia play a small rôle in this and the preceding volume, and even then they are disposed of in a summary manner at the close of the several chapters. Again, the latter part of the title, "from the Earliest Times to the Turkish Conquest," is open to criticism, because, in spite of its many conceded merits, the book cannot be regarded as a consecutive chronological history of Phrygia. The little that can be said of the earliest times Mr. Ramsay says, but, roughly speaking, the book deals with the period from about 400 B.C. to 400 A.D.; the Byzantine period is more or less ignored, and a few words at the end of each chapter serve to do up the Turkish conquest; the evident object of the author being in some fashion to justify the broad title which he has chosen for the book. The book is not a history of Phrygia; an exact title would be, "Scraps from the Local History of Phrygia," for that characterizes it precisely.

The book is marred by polemics. Mr. Ramsay seems to have the unhappy faculty of making enemies of nearly all those who have travelled in Asia Minor in recent years; not only of those who have worked in coöperation with him, but of men who travelled in entire independence of him. When he began his work in Asia Minor, some sixteen years ago, he owed much to the friendly suggestions of Gustav Hirschfeld, the specialist on Asia Minor, the polished gentleman, the brilliant scholar, who, after a sadly disappointing sojourn in the New York Cancer Hospital, of which the fame had brought him all the way from Königsberg in Prussia, went back to Europe two years ago to die miserably. But Mr. Ramsay succeeded in making a deadly foe of Hirschfeld, who was disgusted at the treatment his work in Asia Minor received at Mr. Ramsay's hands, and he said so, in clearest terms, in his painstaking review of Ramsay's 'Historical Geography.' Consequently, Mr. Ramsay's work for some years thereafter bristled with polemics against Hirschfeld, whom he constantly scored.

Latterly Mr. Radet, author of 'En Phrygie,' has taken the place formerly occupied by Hirschfeld in Mr. Ramsay's books. The chief reason is that Radet makes the same charges against Ramsay that Hirschfeld made (we shall not repeat them here), and consequently Ramsay pours hot shot into Radet throughout this book. Mr. Radet, in his brilliant but hurried and unbalanced

work just named, reasons on incorrect principles in regard to the difficult questions of Phrygian topography, which in his hands seem simple enough, for the reason that he complacently leaves the difficulties entirely out of sight, because his knowledge of the topography of Phrygia is insufficient or incorrect. In the historical part of his book, however, he is more successful, because he is more at home. Now, we believe that Mr. Ramsay is always right in his criticisms of Mr. Radet's topographical work. He tries hard, too, to conceal his temper and write in courteous terms of Radet, but not always successfully. Not only in his preface, but throughout the book as well, Mr. Ramsay claims that the world is quite wrong in charging him with failure to do justice to his co-laborers in the exploration of Asia Minor. And yet, for all that, the world is right on that question, at least, and Mr. Ramsay seems to be blind to the fact that he seldom mentions his co-laborers except in disapproval. That, however, might be easily excused by the necessity for brevity, but for the fact that his remarks of disapproval are often couched in terms that cannot fail to wound and offend, because they are curtly dogmatic and oftentimes hardly called for by the exigencies of the case. It must be confessed, however, that in the present volume Mr. Ramsay is more courteous than formerly, for the criticisms of his earlier works have not failed to point out this sin, and he has been taught to be more circumspect in regard to his fellows, all of whom, he declares, are "his valued friends if they will allow him to say so."

The present volume, then, is much better than its predecessor, and it treats of more important subjects. Besides that, Mr. Ramsay knows his ground better, having travelled over it repeatedly in successive years in order to verify, add to, or correct the work of former journeys. And yet, in spite of these many journeys, we read with surprise, which almost approaches dismay, that there are still districts of Phrygia which he has not explored properly (e. g., the Karamyk Ora); and that in places which he has visited repeatedly (e. g., the Sebaste region) future travellers may confidently hope to make epigraphical and topographical discoveries. But still, certainty is oftener reached in this volume, which, he tells us, was written and printed under more favorable circumstances, i. e., less hurriedly, for the former unfavorable circumstances were due, after all, to Mr. Ramsay's great hurry to get into print—a hurry that made it impossible for him even to put his manuscript in proper order. This unfortunate hurry has marred all of Mr. Ramsay's work, from start to finish, brilliant though it be and lasting though it be.

In spite of the greater certainty attained, a great many places are located conjecturally, though, in the absence of positive documentary proof, this must not be reckoned against Mr. Ramsay, for we feel that in such cases he has made the very best use of the evidence before him. His books fairly bristle with interesting and suggestive facts, most of which may not be controverted, and must therefore be the basis of the work of every student of Anatolian matters, as of every future traveller in Asia Minor. Ramsay's books are clearly the offspring of genius; they are live creations, because created by a powerful and ingenious mind that is stored with marvellous special learning.

And by this special learning we do not mean simply a command of the entire literature of the subject, for that is supplemented by an intimate acquaintance with the topography of the country, which, of course, is quite independent of book learning. All this is backed by judgment, keen critical insight, masterful power of analysis and combination, and clear-cut originality.

In chapter x. we find a lucid discussion of Eumeneia, the earliest Christian city of which record remains, its religion, history, monuments, government, tribes, and people. In chapter xl. the immensely important Kelæna-Apameia-Kibotos is treated fully and satisfactorily. Every school-boy has read of Kelæna in his 'Anabasis,' for there the palace of Cyrus was situated, and in its park Cyrus used to hunt wild animals when he needed exercise. Ramsay's discussion of this locality, which has been so interesting from the earliest dawn of history to the present day, involves a dissection of the views entertained by Arundel, Hamilton, Hirschfeld, Hogarth, and Weber, all of whom have discussed the topography of the venerable site. But all of these men wrote without accurate and intimate knowledge of the topography, whose many difficult problems, as we confidently believe, have been settled definitely by Ramsay's knowledge, ingenuity, and astuteness. It is interesting to note here that, with the help of Mrs. Ramsay, he discovered the Laughing and the Weeping Fountains. Equally interesting is the discussion of the fair Aulokrene, across the mountain east of Kelæna. This celebrated fountain will not fail to inspire the traveller because of the hoary legends associated with it. Of it Mr. Ramsay says:

"One lingers by this beautiful fountain, as loath to quit it as the traveller is to leave the shade of its trees and the murmur of its waters, and to go on over the shelterless plain on a hot day in summer. Hardly in Greece itself is there a spot more consecrated with legend. Here Athena sat on the rocks playing her newly invented flute, and saw her distorted face mirrored in the water; here she threw away her flute, and Marsyas picked it up; here Marsyas contended with Apollo, and on that large plane-tree he was hung up to be flayed; in the plain below, Lityerses was slain by the sickles of the reapers; and so on. The physical features of the plain are so remarkable that we need not wonder to find so many legends attached to it."

Then on he goes to a discussion of other Kelænaean matters, such as Kelæna under Lydian rule, historical myths, Eumenes and the great landholders, the Pergamene and Roman conquest, under the Roman Republic, under the Roman Empire, the public buildings, sepulchral monuments, national and imperial cultus, popular assemblies, societies, guilds, magistrates, and officials, the Byzantine period, the Turkish conquest, the territory of Apameia. Let the above serve as an indication or specimen of the contents of the succeeding chapters.

For the student of the history of the early Church the interest begins with chapter xii., which, along with chapter xvii., will be studied with equal care and delight by geographers, archæologists, and Church historians. For Mr. Ramsay is clearly right in his claim that, for the future, the Christian antiquities of Phrygia are not to be a field for vague guessing: for instance, the theory of St. Paul's North-Galatian travels must henceforth be banished from scientific works on Church history, and the Christian origin of the grave-stone of St. Abercius must

cease to be a matter of controversy. The Church historian will be astonished at the flood of light which innocent and unpromising stones from the graves of men who had been incited to a new and better life by the converts of St. Paul, can be forced by the expert scholar to shed upon the history of early Christianity. We learn, among numerous other things, that Christianity did not immediately remake the whole life and manners of its converts, who continued to live in many respects as before, being characterized by most of the habits, and some, or even many, of the faults of their old life and of the society in which they lived. They did not break with all their old habits, thoughts, feelings, and friends when they were converted. Externals remained the same; they continued to live in company with the pagans, similar in respect of food, dress, surroundings, and appliances, frequenting the same forum, market, baths, shops, fairs, etc.; they observed the same laws of politeness in society; their houses were the same; they kept up the same family names, and when they died their graves, tombstones, and epitaphs were in the ordinary style at the very first, though soon slight variations in the epitaphs were introduced in order to avoid using the too pronounced pagan forms, while preserving the general character of the pagan epitaphs (pp. 485-6). Epitaphs were not openly Christian until a comparatively late date, for in order to maintain their legal status in the state the Christians had to "keep dark." But as time went on, even early epitaphs began to be full of *double-entendres*, or hidden meanings, full of words or phrases that had an exoteric and an esoteric meaning by which they might easily be recognized by the faithful. Indeed, their epitaphs often express publicly the deepest facts of the Christian faith, in language that would not offend pagan feeling, and that, too, on monuments which stood plain before the eyes of the world as witness to the faith.

The elucidation of these esoteric phrases, formulæ, symbols, and the general criteria of the Christian epitaph makes intensely interesting reading. In the fourth century, which for Mr. Ramsay is late, all this was changed, for then the Christians, as such, had a legal standing; but still instances of open avowal of Christianity in epitaphs occur as early as 180-200 A. D., e. g., in the case of Avircius Marcellus, Bishop of Hieropolis. One curious fact in connection with the early Christian inscriptions is this, that the parentage of the deceased is rarely mentioned, probably in strict compliance with the injunction of Matthew: "Call no man your father upon the earth, for one is your Father which is in heaven." The early martyrs disclaimed not only their parentage, but all the other relations of ordinary life, country, occupation, and rank, though this does not appear in the epitaphs of ordinary society until later (pp. 487-500). It thrills one to know that the bishop's chair and the bema that belonged to the earliest Christian cathedral, that of Eumeneia, are still in existence in the neighborhood of that city. They ought to be in some museum, instead. Another interesting fact is this, that to the present day the Moslems who live in the neighborhood of Pepouza, the home of the fanatical Montanists of antiquity, are the most fanatical people in Phrygia, and probably no Christian dog can get through the region without having to

submit to insults in great variety. Deeply interesting, too, is the account of the tombstone of St. Abercius, which was found by Ramsay and Sterrett in 1883, at the hot springs created by St. Abercius with the help of the devil. Nothing in all the history of the exploration of Asia Minor has ever created such a furor in Church circles, mostly Catholic, as did the discovery of this stone, for it proves that what apparently was one of the most outrageously mythical Lives in all the 'Acta Sanctorum' had nevertheless an astonishing foundation in fact. A small library has been created by the numerous discussions of this stone, which now rests, as a priceless relic, in the Lateran Museum in Rome. The Pope estimated so highly the great importance of the stone for early Church history that he had a special medal struck with which to reward the labors of Mr. Ramsay, but we believe that his co-laborer, who did the most of the work, received no recognition at the hands of the Pontiff.

Mr. Ramsay's commentary on the many (515) inscriptions which he prints in this volume as documentary vouchers for the views expressed in the text, is superb, and may well serve as a model for all future editors of inscriptions, though few indeed will have the ready learning wherewith to equal, much less to excel, Mr. Ramsay's fine treatment. And yet we have several criticisms to make precisely upon these inscriptions. They do not form a corpus for any given region. The uncial text of inscriptions is always helpful to the scholar, and yet Mr. Ramsay has always sinned in regard to uncials, though he rigidly demands them in others. Above all, no references, except in special cases, are made in the text to the vouching epigraphical documents, which the reader has to search for painfully in a distant portion of the volume. In this connection we feel that we are justified in asking whether the great body of inscriptions in Mr. Ramsay's hands will ever be published in a corpus with the uncials and commentary. As it is, Mr. Ramsay does them out to the public only as his various writings demand, so that inscriptions that were copied by him and Sterrett as far back as 1883 are only now seeing the light of day, while others are still hidden away in his desk in distant Aberdeen. It must be confessed, however, that Mr. Ramsay uses them with effect when he does publish them.

In this volume, the Addenda and Addenda to Addenda are far less conspicuous than in Mr. Ramsay's former efforts. The references in the footnotes to books or articles are often made simply by means of the names of the authors, whereas a little additional trouble in giving titles and pages would have spared the reader exasperation and the laborious task of searching for the authority in question. Again, great numbers of villages are mentioned in the text though they are not on the maps, and it happens very often that a perfect understanding of the author's words is absolutely dependent upon knowing the exact location of a given village. The earnest reader consults the map and is disappointed, to put it mildly, when he finds that it is not to be found. Another source of vexation is Mr. Ramsay's spelling of Turkish names, though that is a point upon which he has always been open to criticism. He sticks stubbornly to English symbols in expressing sounds unknown to the English tongue, or for which there is no

symbol in the English alphabet. For instance, who could imagine that his *kui* (the frequently recurring Turkish word for village) should be pronounced *kiii*? A host of similar vexations might be adduced against Mr. Ramsay, but we could in time become reconciled to his many idiosyncrasies if he were only consistent in his spelling. Yet that, too, were a small matter if he would only preserve on the map the spelling of the text, but he does not. For instance, in the text we find *Ahar Dagh*, but the map gives *Aghar Dagh*; in the text we read *Geuzler* and *Geuzlar*, but on the map we find *Giozler*; in the text we see *Köpli-Su*, but the map knows only a *Koplu-Su*. Such criticisms might be multiplied. Mr. Ramsay does not often display ignorance of the literature of his subject, but he seems to have forgotten that a portion of the inscriptions of Sebaste were published by Sterrett in the *American Journal of Philology* in 1883.

MACLEOD'S HISTORY OF ECONOMICS.

The History of Economics. By Henry Dunning Macleod. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Perhaps the most pathetic figure among the writers of books is that of the man who, with real ability and with intellectual work of good, though not at all the highest, quality to look back upon, refuses to be content with the recognition the world gives him; who dreams that he is among the great geniuses of the race; and who spends the later years of his life in an unavailing demand for recognition. Such a one is Mr. Henry Dunning Macleod. He is the author of books, big and little, on banking which have gone through several editions; people have got into the way of saying that he knows so much of banking that we may charitably disregard a few extravagant ideas and exaggerated claims. But it is these ideas and claims that Mr. Macleod is bent on making us take seriously. It was in a case drawn up by him in 1853 that he tells us to find "the origin of the modern Science of Economics"; it was he who "raised Economics to the level of a great Inductive Science"; and a treatise of his on the 'Elements of Economics' we are bidden to look upon as "in every way entitled, so far as regards its subject, to rank with Newton's 'Principia.'" Some five years ago, he even printed an address to the (English) Civil-Service Commissioners, "claiming as a public right the Examinership in Economics, as being the only person fit to be intrusted with the fortunes in life of the selected candidates for the civil service of India." Too long had these guiltily careless commissioners allowed themselves to be "made the catspaws of," and "led by the nose" by, "young men in the universities"; too long had they disregarded a judgment of the Court of Exchequer confirming, so he declared, Mr. Macleod's doctrines, and "binding all universities, colleges, and professors" (in England) "who give instruction in Economics."

Such pretensions kindness would lead one to hear in silence were it not for two reasons. It chances that of late Mr. Macleod has been treated in some quarters with an unwonted degree of respect, because he has abided by the severest type of monometallism while other economists seemed to be making dangerous concessions. And, moreover, for this new book—new in name and arrangement only, for in substance it is a

réchauffé of what he has printed over and over again—Mr. Macleod has hit upon a catching title. Not a quarter of it can, by any stretch of the term, be properly called a History of Economics. Nevertheless, the literature under that title is at present so scanty, and there is such a growing interest in the subject, that it is quite possible the book will find readers, and even confiding ones. It becomes a duty, then, to say one or two things with an explicitness otherwise brutal.

The book contains a good deal of information and a good deal of sensible criticism of other writers, which will repay perusal by those who have sufficient knowledge to be able to sift the wheat from the chaff. But we are bound to come at once to the positions which Mr. Macleod regards as fundamental. First, then, "the cause of all the mischief and confusion in the science" (p. 45) is that Economics has been treated as the science of the "Production, Distribution, and Consumption" of Wealth, as those words are commonly understood, instead of as the science simply of "Exchanges." It need hardly be said that the proposal to limit Economics to the problems of Exchange is not a new one: most text-books say something of Whately and "Catalactics"; nor is it necessary to enter upon the considerations, obvious enough, that have led economists to take a wider range. But Mr. Macleod declares, not only that this is the wiser conception of Economics, but also that it is the original conception of the science as taught by its founders, the French Economists of the eighteenth century. He furnishes us with the following astounding bit of historical and philological explanation: "Production, Distribution, and Consumption" was originally, according to him, a mere alternative phrase for "Exchange." "The true and original meaning of Production in Economics is to place anything in the market and offer it for sale" (p. 540), not "the process by which the product is obtained" (p. 544). "Distribution" meant nothing but "traffic" (p. 47; cf. p. 115); and "Consumption, in the language of the Economists, and also of Adam Smith, simply meant purchase or demand; it involved no idea of destruction." But unluckily J. B. Say "misunderstood" this formula (p. 45; cf. p. 113), and took it to mean—what we all take it to mean. This mistake has opened the floodgates of error.

The original meaning of the phrase has no real bearing on the question of the proper limitation of the scope of Economics. But this is just one of those parts of the book which produce an impression of profound learning; and so it must be bluntly said that the whole statement is a bit of philological moonshine. The writer who supposes that with the French Economists "Distribution" just meant trafficking, simply shows that he is unacquainted with their characteristic doctrines. It was they who first set going the idea, which has dominated most writers ever since, of an apportionment or allotment to each of the economic classes constituting society of their share or portion of the total produce; the idea of what Adam Smith, in the heading to Book I., calls "the order according to which the produce of labor is naturally distributed among the different ranks of the people." The writer who supposes that by Production the Physiocrats understood bringing into market, can never have thought of the meaning of

produit net, the key to their whole system. The writer who tells us that Consumption in Adam Smith does not mean what it means now, must have forgotten Smith's section on the taxation of "consumable commodities."

From the scope of Economics, Mr. Macleod passes to its subject-matter, *Wealth*. This he defines as all that possesses the quality of exchangeability (p. 48); and he calls attention, as others have done before, to the inconsistency of those who try to combine this with other criteria. So far, good; but now Mr. Macleod proceeds to enunciate his one great pet idea, that "Credit is Wealth" (pp. 49-66, and *passim*). This is "the solid and impregnable foundation upon which the majestic structure of Economic Science is to be erected." Not satisfied to let the proposition rest on its own intrinsic merits, he appeals to "the ancients"; from Aristotle, with his explanation of *chremata* as everything whose value can be measured in money, to Ulpian and the later Roman lawyers, who included debts and rights-of-action under *res*. Easily intelligible as are these citations, Mr. Macleod is never tired of insisting on their importance. He compares himself to a Layard or a Schliemann, for sweeping away the rubbish that has accumulated over these "doctrines of the ancients"; and, with an unexpected distrust of his own powers of translation, he makes "a knowledge of Juridical Latin and Greek" "indispensable" to those who would "comprehend Economics" (p. 166).

As Mr. Macleod goes on himself to point out, most people have always recognized the fact that to the individual a claim upon another, if the other is solvent, is as much "wealth" as goods or money in hand. But he goes a good deal further, and maintains that debts are a part of the wealth of society. He recognizes that "the word Debt has two meanings—both the Creditor's Right of Action, and also the Debtor's Duty to Pay" (p. 441); yet he actually supposes that the Rights of Action can be reckoned into the wealth of a society without being balanced by the equivalent negative quantities represented by the corresponding Duties to Pay. "Public Loans have augmented the Public Wealth," he says (p. 444); and when M. Glde, as a *reductio ad absurdum*, inquired whether France has added to her national wealth by contracting her debt to pay the German indemnity, he boldly replied, "Yes"; because "by this debt she redeemed her independence." With such an argument there is no reasoning. As well might we say that a family would become wealthier if one brother borrowed from another so that he might pay hush money to save the family honor.

Apparently, Mr. Macleod draws no practical conclusion from this doctrine of his that might not just as well have been reached without it. He does not propose that a government should run into debt as a way of increasing national wealth. In fact, one of the most surprising things in this bewildering book is to discover that even when he has laid his foundation he builds nothing particular on it. After the "Nature and History of Economics" have been disposed of in Book I., occupying 168 pages, then follow 520 pages of Book II., devoted to "Fundamental Concepts and Axioms." Never was there a more complete misnomer. Instead of an orderly exposition of a science, or even a thorough consideration of a few "funda-

mental concepts," we are given a series of articles arranged alphabetically as in a dictionary. These articles may be rearranged in two groups. There are a number of essays on well-worn topics, like Rent (though some, like Wages, are conspicuous by their absence); and there are a number of explanations of technical terms, chiefly in Roman commercial law, such as "Acceptilation." These explanations are useful, but their utility is absurdly overestimated, and there is a perfectly childish belief in the advantage to be derived from the decoration of the pages with a few signs of *plus* and *minus*. The other group—the essays—are worth looking over, but they contain nothing startlingly new, nothing that has not already been said in support or criticism of familiar doctrines, and certainly nothing that justifies the preliminary blowing of trumpets. The whole book is a case of much cry and little wool. Or, to change the metaphor, there is a novel and savage monster, by the name of Credit, on the canvas outside; but when we get inside the show we are disappointed to find the same old sleepy beasts—Gresham's Law and the Fallacy of Reciprocity and the rest—that have done duty in scores of shows before. And in this caravan they are not even particularly well groomed.

The Dungeons of Old Paris: Being the Story and Romance of the Most Celebrated Prisons of the Monarchy and Revolution. By Tighe Hopkins. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

Mr. Hopkins essays to make up an entertaining volume from the records of past suffering. One detects no ulterior purpose or special moral in his pages. He is bent on furnishing amusement, partly for its own sake, and partly, unless we do him an injustice, because he is not indisposed to attract a certain portion of the purchasing public. He has skill enough to avoid the crude atrocities which disgust all but confirmed readers of the *Newgate Calendar*, and, by discoursing of the *Marquise de Brinvilliers*, *Marguerite de Valois* and *La Môle*, and the "Prisons of *Aspasia*," he will doubtless collect an audience more or less large. Gaboriau's detective stories are not farther in advance of their English imitations than are the annals of French crime in advance of the heavy brutalities that crop out in Anglo-Saxon communities. Ingenious villany has its admirers, even its devotees, in every land, but the French have broken the Decalogue more artistically than any other race of modern Europeans save the Italian. A light and airy writer of fiction like Mr. Hopkins should find slight difficulty in filling out a book of reasonable dimensions with a choice selection from the *causes célèbres* of Paris. He writes with very apparent ease and is true to the broad facts of his subject. For instance, he is no supporter of the fiction which maintains that the state-prisons of the old régime were only fortified inns where excellent entertainment was provided at fair charges. The Ciceronian conception, "*Carcer non ad puniendos, sed ad continendos homines haberi debet*," was pretty well forgotten in the days of the *vade in pace*; and when Mirabeau at Vincennes blasted the *lettre-de-cachet* system, he showed that it, too, while not involving unmitigated distress, might mean much more than detention.

If one is bent on getting from Mr. Hopkins anything beyond a number of vivacious or of dreadful stories, one will observe how fully his material illustrates the mediæval idea that confinement in prison should entail acute hardship and anguish. Vengeance, not the reform of the culprit or the protection of society, was what was aimed at during those centuries between Louis XI. and Louis XVI., to which he mainly restricts his attention. "Justice," i. e., the perversion of justice, is one of his leading themes. "Something is shown, it is hoped, of every kind of justice that was recognized in Paris until the days of '89, when everything that had been, fell with the terrific fall of the monarchy: feudal justice, the justice of absolute kings and of ministers who were but less absolute, provosts' and bishops' justice, and the justice of prison governors and lieutenants of police." The criminal procedure here referred to is presented in extremely popular form, but a sufficiently vivid impression is created of how imminent the prison was in an age of force. Mr. Hopkins discusses the most famous dungeons of Paris, one after another, in eleven chapters, including at one end of the scale such historic fortresses as the *Pastille* and *Vincennes*, and at the other such distressing mews as *La Force* and *La Roquette*. The particular prison with its vicissitudes is his unit. Matters petty and grave, local and national, romantic and sordid are huddled together according to the place of punishment with which they are associated. We must say that Mr. Hopkins, without being painfully technical, is happy in characterizing his various prisons. Before bringing his criminal or political offenders on the scene he uniformly describes the situation and origin of the forced abode where they are to play their parts in his little drama. Every prison has its distinctive quality. Vincennes holds the great *Frondeurs* and other noted rebels against the monarchy. The Luxembourg is "above all others the aristocratic prison of the Revolution." Bicêtre is "the Bastille of the canaille and the bourgeoisie." Saint-Lazare is both a place of durance and of asylum for female outcasts. A classification of this sort will illuminate many who scamper through French history without stopping to consider whether there may be any particular difference between the Bastille and the Conciergerie, between the Temple and Sainte-Pélagie.

Though all Mr. Hopkins's episodes may not wear the first flush of youth to the well-informed in French memoir literature, they are treated with ability and liveliness. It is apart from our business to say that his subject is distasteful to squeamish people. At least, we can commend this book to those who in comfortable circumstances find themselves afflicted with discontent. Familiarity with the real miseries of the past may lead them to admit that their own subjective woe is not "triste comme les portes d'une prison."

History of the County of Annapolis. With biographical and genealogical sketches. By the late W. A. Calnek. Edited and completed by A. W. Savary, M.A. With portraits and illustrations. Toronto: W. Briggs. 1897. 8vo, pp. xvi, 660.

The early history of this Nova Scotian county has a peculiar, almost unique, in-

terest. Its principal town, of the same name, originally known as Port Royal, was founded by the French three years before the settlement of Jamestown and sixteen before the landing of the Pilgrims. A border-town, it was subjected to more sieges and captures, probably, than any other place in the New World. Six times in the first hundred years of its existence it fell into the hands of the Virginian and New England colonists; and after it had finally become an English possession, its recapture was attempted more than once by the French and Indians. Nor do its annals lack in romantic and dramatic episodes—the strange fortunes of Charles La Tour and his heroic wife being an instance of the one, while for dramatic pathos few stories surpass that of the expatriation of the Acadians. This region can boast, also, of being the birthplace of American industries. On one of its streams was built the first mill on the continent, and in its Basin was launched the first of American vessels.

The early annals (1604-1605) are contained in the first eight chapters. The ninth is a defence of the Acadians, by the editor, against the charge, made by Mr. Parkman among others, that "they would neither leave the country nor take the oath." This statement, he says, "is contradicted by every record bearing on the question," and he certainly makes a strong case against Gov. Lawrence, the chief agent in their removal. He implies that had their "friend," "the gracious and graceful, but brave-hearted soldier," Gov. Mascarene, who "knew and understood them better than any of their other rulers," been in power, the English Government would have been spared the disgrace of this act.

The history of Annapolis and the other towns of the county, Granville, Wilmet, and Clements, after this time possesses little general interest, except in so far as they were affected by the wars of the Revolution and of 1812. A pitiful story is told of the privations and sufferings of the Loyalists, who came in such numbers as greatly to overtax the ability of the inhabitants to provide for them. In 1784 even "the courthouse and every store and private building was crowded with people." Two settlements in the western part of the county, Waldeck and Hessian Lines, were, as their names show, the refuge of disbanded Waldeckers and Hessians, and the wild lands granted to them are still cultivated by their descendants.

The second half of the volume contains biographical memoirs of members of the provincial parliament for the county, and biographical and genealogical sketches of the early settlers and grantees. These show a vast amount of labor on the part of the author, Mr. Calnek, who died in 1892, leaving his work incomplete. His manuscript material has been revised, partly rewritten, amended and added to in some important particulars by the editor, Judge Savary of Annapolis, to whom a large part of the credit of the work—a valuable contribution to our history—belongs. The narrative is illustrated by some interesting portraits, of Mascarene, Gen. Sir W. F. Williams of Kars, a native of Annapolis, and Judge Halliburton, among others, and views and plans. We regret that a map of the county, showing the position of the different settlements, was not added.

Hannibal, Soldier, Statesman, Patriot; and the Crisis of the Struggle between Carthage and Rome. By William O'Connor Morris, sometime scholar of Oriel College, Oxford. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

If there must be a "Heroes of the Nations" Series, Hannibal must have a place in it; yet his story has been told often and lately, and in the total absence of any new material a new life is hardly called for. Nor does his present biographer put the old material in any new light. Like most Oxford scholars, he swears by Mommsen, and, like him, puts Hannibal on a superhuman eminence, while he seems unable to discern the exalted greatness of Scipio. For this latter reason he cannot bring himself to accept entirely the judgment of Polybius, "who was under the influence of the Scipios." But Polybius would hardly have been more kindly disposed to Carthage and Hannibal if he had been under the influence of Cato, whom Judge Morris does not once mention. Repudiating with scorn everything Livy says against Hannibal's character, no words are too bitter for him in describing the Punic race and polity, from the bosom of which Hannibal sprang; nor does he notice that the charge of bad faith against Hannibal appears in Cicero, not as blind spite against a dreaded enemy, but in contrast with the honor and probity of the equally dreaded Pyrrhus. He is never tired of telling us that Carthage sent no reinforcements to Hannibal, yet he offers no explanation of the thirty-three elephants which appear unexpectedly at the siege of Capua in B. C. 211. He brings Scipio seriously down in the line of strategists for allowing Hasdrubal and Mago to slip by him; but he cannot see the real genius of that great man in carrying out his ancestors' conception, striking at the vitals of the Carthaginian power, and arraying their western subjects against them, as Hannibal had never been able to do with the eastern allies of Rome. Such questions are numberless and never will be settled, but it requires something more profound than Judge Morris's enthusiasm to master them.

One particularly teasing point in the book is the way places are dealt with as to the ancient and modern names. No sort of rule is followed. Carthago Nova is never called anything but Cartagena, while Garganus is most superfluously explained in a foot-note as Gargano. When Clastidium, a tolerably well-known Roman colony, is first mentioned, it is by the very obscure name Casteggio, the Latin name not appearing for many pages. Later, a whole string of Latin names in the toe of Italy are assigned to Calabria, which designation has been transferred in later days from the back of the heel.

The printing of the American edition is not all satisfactory; the Greek quotations in particular are sadly in need of proof-reading. The illustrations are many of them superfluous; in particular, Kiepert's plan of Augustan Rome appears as an illustration of Rome two centuries before Augustus, reduced to such a small scale as to be illegible, and the author's name printed in the list as Keippert!

The Book Worm. By Irving Browne. East Aurora, N. Y.: The Roycroft Shop. 1897.

Mr. Browne gives those whom the *Green Bag* and *Albany Law Journal* have taught to admire his peculiar humor, the opportunity of securing among them (according to the

law of priority to the diligent) an edition of 590 signed and numbered copies of this little volume of essays. The subject is an old and trite one, but, treated in Mr. Browne's whimsical manner, and enlivened with his punning doggerel, it makes amusing reading. Some of his remarks on book-plates, binding, and extra-illustrating contain much sense, mingled with wit, a very fair example of which is the following observation on the ethics of bibliomania:

"It is singular how expenditure in books is regarded as an extravagance by the business world. One may spend the price of a fine library in fast or showy horses, or in travel, or in gluttony, or in stock speculations eventuating on the wrong side of his ledger, and the money-grubbing community think none the worse of him. But let him expend a few thousands in books, and these sons of mammon pull long faces, wag their shallow heads, and sneeringly observe, 'Scrow loose somewhere.' . . . As Ruskin observes, we frequently hear of a bibliomaniac, never of a horse-maniac. . . . If a man in business wants to excite the suspicion of the sleek gentlemen who sit around the discount board with him, or yell like lunatics at the stock exchange with him, . . . let it leak out that he has put a few thousand dollars into a Mazarine Bible, or a Caxton, or a first-folio Shakespeare, or some other rare book. No matter if he can afford it, most of his associates regard him as they do a Bedlamite who goes about collecting straws. Fortunate is he if his wife does not privately call on the family attorney, and advise with him about putting a committee over the poor man."

The book is handsomely printed, with ornamental initials in red, and on good paper; but for work so pretentious the proof-reading leaves something to be desired.

A Ride through Western Asia. By Clive Bigham. Macmillan.

The greater part of western Asia is getting to be pretty well-known ground, where travellers can no longer look on themselves as explorers, and where a journey, though attended with hardships, is not apt to be particularly difficult or startling. And yet, when they come to write about their wanderings, it is often better that they should ignore their predecessors. Mr. Bigham is a little too much afraid of repeating what has been told already. He "was in Asia eleven months, during which time I travelled 8,217 miles, 4,008 of which I had ridden on horse-back," visiting Asia Minor, Turkish Arabia, Persia, Russian Central Asia, Kashgar, and western Siberia; he saw many interesting people and things, and he has condensed his experiences into a very readable volume. Its weakness is that, as he covers a great deal of ground which he is conscious has been described before, he merely touches here and there, telling very little about any place, and taking for granted more knowledge than he will find in the general reader. It is hard to keep such a work from being rather scrappy and confusing. On the whole, however, the book is well written, as both matter and style are good, with every now and then an excellent bit of description.

In Turkey the author naturally heard much about the Armenian question. On pages 68 to 70 he quotes some interesting if not very original opinions of an intelligent observer in the country. As for himself, while not attempting to deny the atrocities, he seems to have no great sympathy for the victims, even declaring (p. 30), "The Kurds are in general far more attractive to the casual observer than the Armenians. In

spite of their brigand lives, they are more honest and straightforward, and they bear pain with remarkable fortitude. They probably suffer as much, if not more, at the hands of the Government, but their plaints do not reach so far."

The illustrations of the book are in the main discreetly chosen, but we question the taste of getting the crowd at an execution in Persia to pose for a photograph which is reproduced, including the corpse, for the benefit of the reader.

The Bulgarian Language. By W. R. Morfill, M.A., Reader in Russian and the Other Slavonic Languages in the University of Oxford. [No. XXIII. of Trübner's Collection of Simplified Grammars.] London, 1897. 12mo, pp. 108.

In 1844 there appeared a small pamphlet, privately and anonymously printed at Smyrna, containing in twenty-four pages the essence of the Bulgarian language. The author of it was the American missionary and scholar Elias Riggs, to whom belongs the honor of having written the first grammar of that tongue. It demanded then a great deal of courage and fine discrimination to speak of rules and laws, where several dialects were occupied in an impotent struggle to survive as a literary language. Meanwhile Bulgaria has been freed politically, and of late its language, too, is assuming more and more that uniformity which will insure it a healthy growth. There have appeared many grammars within the last fifteen years (the best are in German and Bohemian), which have treated in a masterly yet popular way the difficult subject of this Slavic language. Mr. Morfill thinks that the time has come when English "travellers or those engaged in commerce" may need one written in English. For this purpose he has consulted a large number of printed sources and natives, in order to make the book as complete as possible.

The mechanical execution of the work is, as in the Polish grammar of the same author and collection, very, very bad. Accents are wanting on hundreds of words, or are wrongly placed, many words are misspelled, forms belonging to one case are accredited to another. Should the student possess an unusual amount of ingenuity to overcome all these stumbling-blocks, he would discover that he has to know a certain amount of Old Slavic in order to comprehend why declensions and conjugations are mentioned by title when, under the respective headings, he is told that they do not exist in Bulgarian. The author has given almost verbatim the whole of the verb paradigms as they stand in Miklositch's Comparative Grammar—a commendable thing to do in a scientific grammar, but hardly in a "simplified" one, intended for travellers, etc. The examples for the declensions closely resemble those in C. F. Morse's 'Grammar of the Bulgarian Language,' published in 1859 at Constantinople. After the patient student has plodded through the grammar, he is regaled on the first page of the "Short Reading Lessons" with two extracts, in which there are a number of forms explained neither in the grammar nor in the dictionary. It was Oxford that exactly two centuries ago gave forth the first Russian grammar ever printed; this Bulgarian Grammar cannot be thought to sustain the reputation for Slavic

studies earned by that institution so long ago.

Grundriss der Englischen Metrik. Von J. Schipper. Vienna: Wilhelm Braumüller.

Schipper's 'Englische Metrik' (3 vols., 1881-88) has been before the public for some years, and has been recognized as the most important work on the subject ever published, but it is too bulky for general use. Moreover, the investigations of Sievers made necessary a revision of the first part of that work, since Sievers's results have been accepted by nearly all Old English scholars. A revision and condensation has been supplied by Schipper in the volume whose title heads this notice. It is divided into two main books, the first treating of the structure of verses (lines), and the second treating of the structure of strophes (stanzas). These are still further subdivided, the first part of the first book discussing the national metre—that is, the alliterative long line—of all periods, and the second part, foreign metres. The stanza is also considered in its general structure and in its special forms during the Middle and Modern English periods. A summary is given of the old discussion of the *Zueibehungstheorie* and the *Vierhebungstheorie* of the half-verse in the Old English alliterative line, and Schipper adheres, with all the greater firmness since the studies of Sievers, to his former view endorsing the first theory. He sums up the whole discussion with a quotation from the Abbot Aelfric on another subject: "If any one does not believe this, he is *unbeliefful*," i. e., incapable of belief.

As to the structure of the alliterative line, Schipper follows the five forms of Sievers. In treating the development of the alliterative long line in Middle-English poetry, he follows Luick, and will press this line also into the five forms, with certain modifications and combinations, but it is doubtful if such a Procrustean system will fit the facts of the case. The Middle-English line is descended from the Old-English line, but with much freer movement and much less regard to the quantity of syllables—accent, and not quantity, ruling; so that these efforts to lay more stress than hitherto on quantity in English verse cannot be regarded as altogether successful. They do not explain all the phenomena, and they necessitate a very involved system of verse.

The foreign metres that began to show themselves in English verse a hundred and fifty years after the Norman Conquest—iambic and trochaic, anapaestic and dactylic—are treated with considerable fulness. Of these the iambic was the only one that appeared in the Middle-English period, the others being of later introduction. Schipper adheres to the classical terminology, in which two iambic feet make a metre, though this has been abandoned by most writers on English metre, the Chaucerian line being regarded as iambic pentameter, not as iambic trimeter brachycatalectic. There seems no more reason in English metre, where accent is the ruling principle, for assuming that two iambs make a metre than for assuming that two dactyls form one.

The rhythm of the verse as variously affected, the measurement of syllables, and particularly the accent of words, both Ger-

manic and Romanic, are all well treated by Schipper; but exception may occasionally be taken to his reading of particular lines. The usual occurrences that disturb the regular rhythm of English verse, such as reverse rhythm, variable accent, failure of thesis, double anacrusis, double thesis, all come into consideration in the several kinds of verse discussed. The earliest examples of the iambic pentameter Schipper finds, not in Chaucer, as is usually thought, but in two poems of the last half of the thirteenth century found in MS. Harl. 2253; in this he differs from Ten Brink. In the case of Shakspeare's blank verse, Schipper differs from Abbott in assuming failure of thesis at the beginning or within the verse, where Abbott would prolong the monosyllable; here Abbott's view seems preferable. Many modern examples of iambic-anapaestic and trochaic-dactylic verse are considered. The effort to regulate the classic dactylic hexameter in English according to the laws of quantity, as recommended by Cayley and Matthew Arnold, is characterized as *ganz verfehlt* (p. 259). Extracts from Longfellow's 'Evangeline' are given as good examples of the use of the hexameter in English, but we miss mention of Kingsley's 'Andromeda.'

The second book, on the structure of the strophe (stanza), is very full and shows very wide reading. Every conceivable variety of stanza, and of rhyme within the stanza, seems to be included, and still each poet feels at liberty to introduce a new stanza or a new way of rhyming in an old one. Schipper takes exception to the common view that the term rhyme-royal was applied to the Chaucerian stanza because James I. of Scotland composed in it his 'King's Quair,' and he agrees with Guest that it was derived from the French expression *chant-royal*, a term applied to certain poems written in this stanza in honor of God or the Virgin Mary and repeated at the poetical contests at Rouen on the choice of a King (p. 327). This is an historical question, and can be settled only by the discovery of the first uses of the term in English as applied to this stanza. The Spenserian stanza and those of the Pindaric odes are taken up, but Gray's two odes are barely named. The sonnet stanza receives interesting consideration, and the work closes with mention of other Italian and French forms that have been here and there imitated in English.

We have noticed a number of errata, but they can be easily corrected; one of the most serious is *Senkung* for *Hebung* (twice) on p. 51.

Enfranchisement and Citizenship: Addresses and Papers. By Edward L. Pierce. Edited by A. W. Stevens. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

The late Edward L. Pierce was well known as a legal author and by his 'Life of Sumner.' This collection of papers, made a year ago, is chiefly valuable as a memorial of versatile activity in other directions. The most interesting part of the volume, which consists mainly of occasional addresses, will be found to be the first 141 pages; these are historical and autobiographical, and give an account of Mr. Pierce's services during the war. When Mr. Lincoln's first call of seventy-five thousand volunteers was made, Mr. Pierce, then a man of thirty-two, deeply

interested in the anti-slavery movement, enlisted as a private in the New Bedford City Guards (3d Regiment Mass. V. M.). "A Private Soldier in Virginia" tells the story of his soldiering, and throws some interesting light on the first days of the war. The writer was not merely a soldier; he was also a war correspondent, supplying news with regularity to the *Boston Traveller*. On May 31, 1861, we find him making a report to Gov. Andrew, at the latter's request, upon the condition of the troops at Fortress Monroe. While serving as a private soldier, he was requested by Gen. Butler to take permanent charge of the incoming negroes, but he preferred to remain with his regiment. His last days of service in Virginia, however, were passed in charge of negroes at Hampton, and an article contributed by him to the *Atlantic Monthly*, on "The Contrabands at Fortress Monroe," attracted a great deal of attention. It will bear re-reading now. The writer predicted that the consequences of arming the blacks then so much dreaded would never follow, and they never did. Later in the year he was sent by Mr. Chase, then Secretary of the Treasury, to Beaufort, "in connection with contrabands and cotton," and he made two important reports. These have been combined in the present volume with another article from the *Atlantic*, making a paper called "The Freedmen at Port Royal." In this the author shows both good sense and foresight, vindicating the negro's right to freedom by the fruits of observation and experience. Another paper gives an account of the assault on Fort Wagner, of which Mr. Pierce was a witness.

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